

**ANTIBACTERIAL ACTIVITIES OF SELECTED MARINE
FUNGI FROM PENINSULAR MALAYSIA**

AUDRA SHALEENA A/P PALIANY

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULLFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER
OF SCIENCE**

**INSTITUTE OF BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES
FACULTY OF SCIENCE
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2014

UNIVERSITI MALAYA

ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

Name of Candidate: **AUDRA SHALEENA A/P PALIANY**

I.C/Passport No: **870626-14-5762**

Registration/Matrix No: **SGR110084**

Name of Degree: **MASTER OF SCIENCE**

Title of Project Paper/Research Report/Dissertation/Thesis ("This Work"):

"ANTIBACTERIAL ACTIVITIES OF SELECTED MARINE FUNGI FROM PENINSULAR MALAYSIA"

Field of Study: **BIOLOGY AND BIOCHEMISTRY**

I do solemnly and sincerely declare that:

- (1) I am the sole author/writer of this Work,
- (2) This Work is original,
- (3) Any use of any work in which copyright exists was done by way of fair dealing and for permitted purposes and any excerpt or extract from, or reference to or reproduction of any copyright work has been disclosed expressly and sufficiently and the title of the Work and its authorship have been acknowledged in this Work,
- (4) I do not have any actual knowledge nor do I ought reasonably to know that the making of this work constitutes an infringement of any copyright work;
- (5) I hereby assign all and every rights in the copyright to this Work to the University of Malaya ("UM"), who henceforth shall be owner of the copyright in this Work and that any reproduction or use in any form or by any means whatsoever is prohibited without the written consent of UM having been first had and obtained;
- (6) I am fully aware that if in the course of making this Work I have infringed any copyright whether intentionally or otherwise, I may be subject to legal action or any other action as may be determined by UM.

(Candidate Signature)

Date:

Subscribed and solemnly declared before,

Witness's Signature

Date:

Name **ASSOC. PROF. DR. SITI AISAH HJ ALIAS**

Designation **ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR/SUPERVISOR**

Witness's Signature

Date:

Name **PROFESSOR DR. KHALIJAH AWANG**

Designation **PROFESSOR/SUPERVISOR**

LIST OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Original Literary Work Declaration	ii
List of Contents	iii
Abstract	vii
Abstrak	ix
Acknowledgement	xi
List of Figures	xii
List of Tables	xiv
List of Symbols and Abbreviations	xvi
List of Appendices	xx
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	5
2.1 Marine organisms and their potential as producers of natural products	5
2.2 Marine derived fungi	7
2.2.1 <i>Natural products from marine derived fungi</i>	8
2.2.2 <i>Antibacterial compounds from marine derived fungi and their mechanisms</i>	18
2.3 Manglicolous and endophytic marine derived fungi as potential natural product reservoirs	20
2.3.1 <i>Manglicolous fungi</i>	20
2.3.2 <i>Host plant and endophytic fungi</i>	21
2.4 Bacterial resistance and nosocomial infections	23
2.4.1 <i>Characteristics of test bacteria and their relation to nosocomial infections</i>	24
2.4.1.1 <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	24
2.4.1.2 <i>Bacillus cereus</i>	25
2.4.1.3 <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	25
2.4.1.4 <i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	26
2.4.1.5 <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	26
2.4.1.6 <i>Escherichia coli</i>	27
2.4.1.7 <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	28

CHAPTER 3: MATERIALS AND METHODOS	30
3.1 Collection, isolation and identification of marine derived fungi	30
3.1.1 Endophytic fungi of marine associated host plants	30
3.1.1.1 Collection and isolation of marine derived endophytic fungi	31
3.1.2 Manglicolous fungi	32
3.2 Molecular identification of endophytic marine derived fungi	33
3.2.1 Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) extraction from marine derived endophytic fungi	33
3.2.2 Preparation of agarose gel	34
3.2.3 Preparation of Tris-acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer	34
3.2.4 Preparation of Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer	34
3.2.5 Preparation of primer working solution	34
3.2.6 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)	35
3.2.7 Alignment of DNA sequences using MEGA 5.0 and Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST)	35
3.3 Preliminary screening of marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi using the plug assay method	36
3.4 Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi extracts	38
3.4.1 Extraction of fungal secondary metabolites	38
3.4.2 Preparation of p-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) and antibiotics	38
3.4.3 Preparation of bacterial suspension	39
3.4.4 Preparation of crude stock	39
3.4.5 Bioassay using broth microdilution method	39
3.5 Chemical analysis of ethyl acetate crude extract (EAS) of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	42
3.5.1 Extraction of crude fungal extract for fractionation	42
3.5.2 Solvent sequential extraction	42
3.5.3 Column chromatography	43
3.5.4 Preparative thin layer chromatography (TLC)	43
3.5.5 Structure elucidation of the isolated secondary metabolite	44

3.5.5.1	<i>Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR)</i>	44
3.5.5.2	<i>Liquid chromatography-mass spectroscopy (MS)</i>	44
3.5.5.3	<i>Infra-red spectroscopy</i>	44
3.5.5.4	<i>Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy</i>	45
3.6	Chemicals, media & kits	47
3.7	Instruments and Labware	48
 CHAPTER 4: RESULTS		50
4.1	Endophytic fungi strains from marine associated plants	50
4.1.1	<i>Endophytic fungi from Vitex rotundifolia and Ipomoea pes-caprae</i>	50
4.2	Antibacterial activity of marine derived fungi based on plug assay	54
4.2.1	<i>Antibacterial activity of endophytic fungi from Vitex rotundifolia and Ipomoea pes-caprae</i>	54
4.2.2	<i>Antibacterial activity of manglicolous fungi</i>	58
4.3	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of marine derived fungi crude extracts obtained through broth microdilution assay	60
4.3.1	<i>MIC values of endophytic fungi crude extracts</i>	60
4.3.2	<i>MIC values of manglicolous fungi crude extracts</i>	62
4.4	Sub-fractions from ethyl acetate crude extract (EAS) of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> obtained through bioassay guided fractionation	65
4.4.1	<i>EAS of Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	65
4.4.2	<i>Fractions of EAS</i>	65
4.4.3	<i>Column chromatography fractionation of HS and DS fraction</i>	66
4.4.3.1	<i>Sub-fractions of HS fraction</i>	66
4.4.3.2	<i>Sub-fractions of DS fraction</i>	67
4.5	Antibacterial activity of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> extracts	68
4.5.1	<i>MIC values of solvent partition fractions</i>	68
4.5.2	<i>MIC values of the sub-fractions from the HS fraction</i>	68
4.5.3	<i>MIC values of the sub-fractions from the DS fraction</i>	69
4.5.4	<i>MIC values of metabolites from Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	72
4.6	NMR spectroscopic data of metabolites from <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	74
4.7	Mass spectrometry data of metabolites from <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	86

4.8	Infrared (IR) spectroscopy data of metabolites from <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	89
4.9	Ultraviolet (UV) spectroscopy data of metabolites from <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	91
	CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	93
5.1	Significance of molecular methods in the identification of endophytic fungi from <i>Ipomoea pes-caprae</i> and <i>Vitex rotundifolia</i>	93
5.2	Antimicrobial susceptibility testing of marine derived fungi extracts	97
5.3	Endophytic fungi as producers of bioactive metabolites	101
	5.3.1 <i>Endophytic fungi and their antimicrobial activities</i>	105
5.4	Manglicolous fungi as promising natural product reservoirs	110
5.5	Effect of culture conditions in the production of fungal secondary metabolites	112
5.6	Antibacterial potential of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	114
	5.6.1 <i>Bioactive metabolites of Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	117
5.7	Improvisations with respect to the present study and suggestions for future work	122
	CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS	124
	References	126
	Appendices	148

ABSTRACT

Over the past few decades, scientists have come to acknowledge the growing importance of marine and marine-related resources for new drugs, pesticides and anti-fouling substances, with over 10,000 metabolites isolated from marine organisms to date. In an effort to tap into the pharmaceutical potential of marine fungi in Malaysia, selected marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi from the coastlines of Peninsular Malaysia were investigated for their antibacterial potential. The endophytic fungi in this study were isolated from two marine associated plants; *Vitex rotundifolia* L.f. and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* (L.) R.Br., from the east and west coast of Peninsular Malaysia respectively. A total of 13 and 21 endophytic fungi were isolated from *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae*, respectively. The eleven manglicolous fungi strains used in this study were of mangrove origin and were obtained from the Institute of Biological Sciences (ISB) culture collection. In preliminary experiments, a mycelial plug assay was employed to study the antibacterial activities of both endophytic and manglicolous fungi. Almost 38.5% of the fungal strains from *V. rotundifolia* and 47.6% of the fungal strains from *I. pes-caprae* exhibited antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria. Ten or 91% of the manglicolous fungi exhibited antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria. Endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* displayed higher potential for antibacterial activity in comparison to endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia*. *Minimidochium* sp. and *Bipolaris* sp. displayed antibacterial activity towards five or more of the test bacteria. Ten or 91% of the eleven manglicolous fungi displayed antibacterial activity. *Saccardoella rhizophorae*, *Henningsomyces* sp., *Dactylospora haliotrepha* (ISB003) and MF 28 exhibited promising antibacterial potential. Based on the results from the mycelial plug assay, five endophytic and ten manglicolous fungi were further investigated using the broth microdilution assay to obtain quantitative antibacterial parameters. *Saccardoella rhizophorae* was chosen for complete chemical

analysis of its secondary metabolite profile. Bioactivity-guided fractionation of *S. rhizophorae* crude extract resulted in the isolation and characterization of two fatty acids namely palmitic acid and linoleic acid from the *n*-hexane fraction. Both isolated fatty acids exhibited antibacterial activity against gram positive bacteria. Certain fatty acids are important constituents of essential oils and fatty acids, such as linoleic acid, are important as nutritional supplements. Fatty acids are also essential in the field of biodiesel which is fast becoming the preferred alternate to conventional fuel with research being performed to identify sustainable sources of biodiesel feedstock. The isolation of fatty acids from *S. rhizophorae* indicates its potential application in the field of food technology and biodiesel. Although Malaysia hosts a great diversity of fungi, there are very few studies on metabolites of fungal origin, thus this study may prove crucial in paving the way towards commercial application of fungal metabolites and possibly lead to further discovery of new or novel fungal metabolites with pharmacological values.

ABSTRAK

Sejak beberapa dekad yang lalu, ahli sains telah mengakui kepentingan sumber marin di dalam kajian untuk ubat-ubatan baru, racun perosak dan bahan-bahan yang mempunyai potensi aktiviti biologi. Laporan kaji selidik saintifik telah melaporkan lebih kurang 10,000 metabolit kimia yang telah diasingkan daripada organisma marin terutamanya, span, karang lembut, kulat dan bakteria di seluruh dunia. Dalam usaha untuk meneroka potensi farmaseutikal daripada kulat marin di Malaysia, kulat marin berasal kulat endofitik dan saprofitik dari pantai Semenanjung Malaysia telah dipilih untuk kajian selidik potensi antibakteria mereka. Kulat endofitik dalam kajian ini telah diasingkan daripada dua tumbuhan marin iaitu; *Vitex rotundifolia* L.f dan *Ipomoea pes-caprae* (L.) R.Br., dari pantai timur dan pantai barat Semenanjung Malaysia, masing-masing. Sebanyak 13 dan 21 kulat endofitik telah diasingkan daripada *V. rotundifolia* dan *I. pes-caprae* masing-masing. Sebelas kulat daripada paya bakau yang dikaji dalam kajian ini berasal daripada kayu bakau dan diperolehi daripada koleksi kultur Institut Sains Biologi. Dalam percubaan awal, “plug assay” telah digunakan untuk mengkaji aktiviti antibakteria kedua-dua jenis kulat. Hampir 38.5% daripada kulat endofitik daripada *V. rotundifolia* dan 47.6% daripada kulat endofitik daripada *I. pes-caprae* memaparkan aktiviti antibakteria terhadap sekurang-kurangnya satu bakteria ujian dalam penskrinan awal. Keputusan yang diperolehi menunjukkan bahawa kulat endofitik yang dipencil daripada tumbuhan *I. pes-caprae* memaparkan potensi aktiviti antibakteria yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan kulat endofitik yang dipencil daripada tumbuhan *V. rotundifolia* terutama kulat seperti, *Minimidochium* sp. dan *Bipolaris* sp. yang memaparkan aktiviti antibakteria terhadap lima atau lebih daripada bakteria yang diuji. Daripada sebelas kulat yang diperolehi daripada paya bakau, sepuluh atau 91% daripada kulat tersebut memaparkan aktiviti antibakteria yang ketara. Kulat seperti, *Saccardoella rhizophorae*, *Henningsomyces* sp., *Dactylospora haliotrepha* (ISB003) dan MF 28 telah

memaparkan potensi antibakteria yang memberangsangkan. Berdasarkan keputusan antibakteria awal, lima kulat endofitik dan sembilan kulat daripada paya bakau telah disiasat secara lanjut melalui “broth microdilution assay” untuk mendapatkan parameter antibakteria yang lebih kuantitatif. *Saccardoella rhizophorae* sejenis kulat saprofitik telah dipilih untuk analisis kimia lengkap terhadap profil metabolit sekundernya. Pengasingan metabolit berpandu bioaktiviti ke atas ekstrak mentah *S. rhizophorae* menyebabkan pengasingan dan pencirian dua asid lemak iaitu asid palmitic dan asid linoleik daripada pecahan *n*-heksana. Kedua-dua asid lemak yang diasingkan mempamerkan aktiviti antibakteria terhadap bakteria gram positif. Asid lemak tertentu adalah juzuk penting dalam minyak yang penting dan asid lemak seperti asid linoleik penting sebagai pemakanan tambahan. Selain itu, asid lemak yang juga penting dalam bidang biodiesel yang kini menjadi alternatif pilihan kepada bahan api konvensional dengan penyelidikan yang berterusan sedang dilakukan untuk mengenal pasti sumber-sumber yang mampan bahan mentah biodiesel. Pengasingan asid lemak dari *S. rhizophorae* menunjukkan aplikasi yang berpotensi dalam bidang teknologi makanan dan biodiesel. Walaupun Malaysia menjadi tuan rumah kepada diversiti besar kulat, setakat ini hanya terdapat sedikit kajian mengenai metabolit daripada kulat. Oleh demikian, kajian ini membuktikan kepentingan halatuju ke arah aplikasi komersil metabolit kulat dan mungkin membawa kepada penemuan metabolit kulat baru atau novel dengan nilai farmakologi pada masa depan.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my deepest and sincere gratitude to all those who ensured the completion of this project. First and foremost I would like to acknowledge the support and guidance of both my project supervisors, Dr. Siti Aisah Alias and Prof. Dr. Khalijah Awang, without whom this project would not have seen light. I'm ever grateful for your guidance, support and encouragement throughout the length of this project.

Special gratitude to Dr. Yasodha Sivasothy for her time, effort and pep talk every step of the way. A very big thank you to all my lab mates especially Norlailatul Asikin Mohammad Nor, Hanna Hazirah Awalluddin, Hafizah Halim and Hafizah Ali for their support, motivation and laughs. You guys made research all that fun. I would also like to acknowledge the National Antarctic Research Centre for granting me access to their research facilities.

Thank you Venno for journeying with me through it all!

I would hereby most importantly like to extend my love and utmost gratitude to both my parents and aunt for their words of encouragement at every step leading towards the completion of this project. Thank you for standing by me in my strength and my weaknesses.

Last but not least, my deepest gratitude to the University of Malaya for their postgraduate research grants and scholarship throughout my course of study.

Remember to look up at the stars and not down at your feet. Try to make sense of what you see and wonder about what makes the universe exist. Be curious. And however difficult life may seem there is always something you can do and succeed at. It matters that you don't just give up. – Stephen Hawking

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Percentage of new compounds from marine derived fungi with respect to the fungi source and substrates	11
Figure 2.2	Percentage of new compounds from marine derived fungi with respect to their chemical grouping	11
Figure 2.3	Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi	15
Figure 3.1	Photographs of endophytic fungi host plants. A and B: <i>V. rotundifolia</i> ; C and D: <i>I. pes-caprae</i>	31
Figure 3.2	Illustration of the 96 well plate used in broth microdilution assay	41
Figure 3.3	Schematic protocol of isolation of the bioactive metabolite by bioassay guided fractionation from <i>S. rhizophorae</i>	46
Figure 4.1	Photographs of selected endophytic fungi isolated from <i>V. rotundifolia</i> on PDA. A: <i>G. mangiferae</i> ; B: <i>Phoma</i> sp.; C: <i>L. helminthicola</i> ; D: <i>C. eragrostidis</i> ; E: <i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.; F: Fungal sp. ARIZ B233	52
Figure 4.2	Photographs of selected endophytic fungi isolated from <i>I. pes-caprae</i> on PDA. A: <i>C. cladosporioides</i> ; B: <i>Dothideomycete</i> sp.; C: <i>Phoma</i> sp.; D: <i>Bipolaris</i> sp.; E: <i>F. equiseti</i> ; F: <i>Colletotrichum</i> sp.	53
Figure 4.3	Photograph of inhibition zone in plug assay. A: Zone inhibition of antibacterial activities of <i>Bipolaris</i> sp. and <i>Montagnulaceae</i> sp. B: Zone inhibition of antibacterial activities of <i>Phoma</i> sp. and <i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	58
Figure 4.4	Photographs of colour changes indicating MIC values in broth microdilution assay. A: MIC of MF28 extract, B: MIC of <i>S. rhizophorae</i> extract	63
Figure 4.5	Photograph of 15 day old <i>S. rhizophorae</i> cultured on PDA media	65
Figure 4.6	Structure of linoleic acid and palmitic acid	74
Figure 4.7a	¹ H NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl ₃ (ppm)	76
Figure 4.7b	¹³ C NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl ₃ (ppm)	79
Figure 4.8a	¹ H NMR 400 Hz of palmitic acid in CDCl ₃ (ppm)	83
Figure 4.8b	¹³ C NMR 400 Hz of palmitic acid in CDCl ₃ (ppm)	84
Figure 4.9a	LCMS spectrum of linoleic acid	87
Figure 4.9b	LCMS spectrum of palmitic acid	88

Figure 4.10a	IR spectroscopy data of linoleic acid	90
Figure 4.10b	IR spectroscopy data of palmitic acid	90
Figure 4.11a	UV spectroscopy data of linoleic acid	92
Figure 4.11b	UV spectroscopy data of palmitic acid	92

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi	12
Table 3.1	List of manglicolous fungi in the present study	32
Table 3.2	List of chemicals and media	47
Table 3.3	List of instruments and lab ware	48
Table 4.1	Putatively named endophytic fungi from the marine associated plants <i>V. rotundifolia</i> and <i>I. pes-caprae</i>	51
Table 4.2	Preliminary antibacterial activities of endophytic fungi from the marine associated plant <i>V. rotundifolia</i> and <i>I. pes-caprae</i> against seven bacterial strains	56
Table 4.3	Preliminary antibacterial activity of manglicolous fungi against seven test bacteria	59
Table 4.4	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of endophytic fungi crude extracts in mg/ml	61
Table 4.5	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of manglicolous fungi crude extracts in mg/ml	64
Table 4.6	Colour and dry weight of HS, DS and MS fractions	66
Table 4.7.1	Weight and appearance of sub-fractions from HS fraction	66
Table 4.7.2	Weight and appearance of sub-fractions from DS fraction	67
Table 4.8	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of HS, DS and MS fractions in mg/ml	68
Table 4.8.1	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of sub-fractions of HS fraction in mg/ml	71
Table 4.8.2	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of sub-fraction of DS fraction in mg/ml	71
Table 4.9	Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of pure compounds in mg/ml	73
Table 4.10	The ¹ H and ¹³ C NMR 400 Hz data of linoleic acid	75
Table 4.11	The ¹ H and ¹³ C NMR 400 Hz data of palmitic acid	82

Table 5.1	Comparison of MIC values of antibiotics against test bacteria towards antimicrobial susceptibility interpretive criteria	116
Table 5.2	Research done on selected marine derived fungi leading to the isolation of similar fatty acids as in the present study	121

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ARDRA	Amplified rDNA restriction analysis
ARISA	Amplified ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis
ASTM	American society for testing and materials
ATCC	American type culture collection
<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>
BLAST	Basic local alignment search tool
<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>
C ₁₆ H ₃₂ O ₂	Palmitic acid
C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₂	Linoleic acid
CDC	Centers for Disease Control
CDCl ₃	Chloroform D1
cfu	Colony forming unit
CMA	Corn meal agar
<i>C. cladosporioides</i>	<i>Clasdosporium cladosporioides</i>
<i>C. eragrostidis</i>	<i>Cochliobolus eragrostidis</i>
<i>C. hippeastri</i>	<i>Colletotrichum hippeastri</i>
<i>C. lunatus</i>	<i>Cochliobolus lunatus</i>
<i>C. maritima</i>	<i>Corollospora maritima</i>
Cl	Chloride
CLSI	Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute
°C	Degree Celsius
COSY	Correlation spectroscopy
DEPT	Distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer
DGGE	Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis
<i>D. haliotrepha</i>	<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i>
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide

DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DS	Dichloromethane fraction of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> crude
EA	Ethyl acetate
EAS	Ethyl acetate crude extract of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>
EIMS	Electron impact mass spectroscopy
ESBL	Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamase
EUCAST	European committee on antimicrobial susceptibility testing
FT-IR	Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
<i>F. equiseti</i>	<i>Fusarium equiseti</i>
<i>G. mangiferae</i>	<i>Guignardia mangiferae</i>
HS	<i>n</i> -hexane fraction of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> crude
HMBC	Heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation spectroscopy
HSQC	Heteronuclear single-quantum correlation spectroscopy
INT	p-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet
<i>I. pes-caprae</i>	<i>Ipomoea pes-caprae</i>
IR	Infra-red
ISB	Institute of Biological Science
ITS	Inter-transcribed spacer
<i>L. helminthicola</i>	<i>Letendreaa helminthicola</i>
LC-MS	Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry
mg	milligram
MHA	Mueller Hinton agar
MHB	Mueller Hinton broth
MIC	Minimum inhibitory concentration
ml	Millilitre

<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>
mm	Millimetre
mM	Milimolar
MS	Methanol fraction of <i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> crude
MTCC	Microbial type culture collection and Gene Bank
<i>N. primolutea</i>	<i>Nemania primolutea</i>
NCBI	National Centre for Biotechnology Information
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
nm	Nanometre
NRPS	Nonribosomal peptide synthethase
LB	Luria broth
LPS	Lipo-polysaccharide
LTSs	Lowest taxonomic units
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>
PDA	Potato dextrose agar
PDB	Potato dextrose broth
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PKS	Polyketide synthase
ppm	Parts per million
PUFA	Polyunsaturated fatty acids
rpm	Rotations per minute
rRNA	Ribosomal ribonucleic acid
<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
<i>S. rhizophorae</i>	<i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>
SSCP	Single-strand conformation polymorphism
TAE	Tris-acetate-EDTA
TE	Tris-EDTA
TGGE	Temperature gradient gel electrophoresis

TLC	Thin layer chromatography
T-RFLP	Terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism
TRIS	Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
µg	Microgram
µl	Microliter
US	United States
UV	Ultraviolet
UV-Vis	Ultraviolet-visible
<i>V. enalia</i>	<i>Verruculina enalia</i>
<i>V. minor</i>	<i>Vinca minor</i>
<i>V. rotundifolia</i>	<i>Vitex rotundifolia</i>
WHO	World Health Organization
%	Percentage

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1	Preparation of media and chemicals	148
Appendix 2	List of aligned ITS sequence by NCBI BLAST of marine derived endophytic fungi	150
Appendix 3	Zone of inhibition values demonstrated by marine derived fungi against test bacteria in the plug assay	167
Appendix 4	2-dimensional NMR spectrum of linoleic acid in CDCl ₃	170
Appendix 5	2-dimensional NMR spectrum of palmitic acid in CDCl ₃	180
Appendix 6	List of presentation abstracts	185
Appendix 7	List of abstracts for journal publication	188

INTRODUCTION

The marine environment comprises 70% of the Earth's surface; however taking into account the topography of the ocean floor, the actual surface area of the ocean is considerably higher. The ocean harbours great biological diversity accounting for more than 90% of the whole biosphere (Subramani *et al.*, 2012). This estimation could be in fact higher due underestimated oceanic depth which stands at slightly more than 10,000m in comparison to the vertical rise of land, the Mt. Everest at merely 8848m thus suggesting the existence of greater biodiversity in the oceans (Fautin, 2012; Manivasagan *et al.*, 2013). However, most reports of natural product discovery stem from the terrestrial environment due to the underexplored state of the marine habitat (Dias *et al.*, 2012).

Microorganisms such as bacteria and fungi, have been evolving for the past 3.8 billion years and are shown to produce more evolved metabolites as a part of their defence mechanism thus making them candidates for the production of bioactive natural products to be used as drug leads (Joel *et al.*, 2013; Swathi *et al.*, 2013). Scientists' hypothesize that the need of these organisms to adapt and survive in the considerably harsh marine environment may have shaped their biochemical pathways into producing unique secondary metabolites (Zhou *et al.*, 2014).

The marine habitat is host to a wide variety of organisms particularly microorganisms that are promising sources for the discovery of novel metabolites (Manivasagan *et al.*, 2013). Recent years has seen a growing interest in marine derived fungi as sources of new or novel metabolites (Zhou *et al.*, 2014). Marine derived fungi produce bioactive metabolites with wide range of activities such as anticancer, antibacterial, antiplasmodial, antiviral and anti-inflammatory (Ebel, 2012; Duarte *et al.*, 2012). Interest in marine derived fungi as producers of antibacterial metabolites

commenced with the discovery of cephalosporin C by the fungi *Cephalosporium acremonium* in 1940's (Proksch *et al.*, 2008). Currently, marine derived fungi represent a large fraction of antibacterial compound producers in comparison to other microbial flora (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2012).

Two-thirds of drugs used in the treatment of human diseases over the past 25 years, have been derived from natural products or derivatives of them (Berkov *et al.*, 2014). Technological and molecular biology advances have opened up new frontiers in natural product research, allowing effective investigation of new leads from Nature (Berkov *et al.*, 2014). Hastened human practices and inappropriate use of antibiotics has led to an increase in bacterial resistance to clinically used antibiotics often leading to failure of conventional antibiotic therapies (Ola *et al.*, 2014; Rao, *et al.*, 2014). This scenario further raises the urgency to develop new antibiotics with novel mechanisms of action to counter effect the current resistance mechanisms of bacteria (Ola *et al.*, 2014; Gomes *et al.*, 2014).

There is a general lack of information and few studies on bioactive metabolites from marine derived fungi from Malaysia. A study by Zainuddin *et al.* (2010), investigated the antimicrobial properties of 152 marine derived fungi from Malaysia and successfully isolated 2,2,7-trimethyl-2H-chromen-5-ol from the marine derived fungi *Fasciatispora nypae* K.D. Hyde, a compound that was never before reported to be isolated from nature. The study by Zainuddin *et al.* (2010) only targeted the bioactivities of mangrove fungi; however there are other ecological groups of marine derived fungi such as algicolous, arenicolous, endophytic fungi from coastal associated plants and others that have yet to be explored in Malaysia.

Endophytic fungi are known to be excellent sources of a wide array of new biologically active metabolites (Debbab *et al.*, 2011; Saleem *et al.*, 2013) with a great number of compounds isolated in the past decades (Zhang *et al.*, 2014). However there

have only been few reports from Malaysia (Sultan *et al.*, 2011; Tong *et al.*, 2011) on the potential of bioactive metabolites of endophytic fungi, all originating from medicinal herbs and non-marine associated plants of Malaysia. The marine associated plants, *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* are usually found as crawlers along the sand dunes, which is an area located in the intertidal are, that makes them both excellent sources for endophytic fungi. Mangroves are also located in the intertidal zone and are known to be host to a great diversity of fungi due to its high carbon recycling rates (Sridhar *et al.*, 2012). Manglicolous fungi have been reported to produce a broad variety of new and novel bioactive metabolites with significant pharmacological values (Joel *et al.*, 2013). Studies on bioactivities of manglicolous fungi from Malaysia are still at its initial stages while the bioactivities of fungi from the marine associated plants in the present study have not been previously explored in Malaysia. There have been no studies on the bioactivities of endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia*, while there was only one study (Guo *et al.*, 2012) pertaining to the bioactivity of endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* however this study was not reported from Malaysia. There have also been no reports from Malaysia regarding metabolites isolated from the manglicolous fungi in the present study. Marine derived fungi from Malaysia may harbour promising potential for the discovery of pharmacologically significant metabolites.

Research objectives:

1. To isolate and identify endophytic fungi from marine associated plants, *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* using Inter-transcribed spacer (ITS) sequence analysis.

2. To evaluate the antibacterial activity of endophytic fungi from marine associated plants (*V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae*) and manglicolous fungi from mangrove decaying materials of Peninsular Malaysia using mycelial plug and broth microdilution assay
3. To isolate and characterize the antibacterial secondary metabolites from the manglicolous fungi, *Saccardoella rhizophorae* by using bioactivity-guided fractionation coupled with Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS), Ultra-violet (UV) spectroscopy and Infra-red (IR) spectroscopy.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Marine organisms and their potential as producers of natural products

Nature is known to be a reservoir of compounds with high chemical diversity and excellent therapeutic potential (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2012). Approximately 70% of the earth's surface constitutes water and every life form on earth is believed to have its origin in the sea (Haefner, 2003). Some marine biologists go as far as to believe that in certain marine ecosystems, the biodiversity can be even higher than what is usually observed in tropical rainforests (Haefner, 2003). The search for natural products was traditionally limited to plants especially higher terrestrial plants; however over the years, the scientific world has become increasingly aware of the vast untapped potential of natural products from marine life forms (Ebel, 2012).

The discovery of natural products from marine sources began in the 1950's, which resulted in the isolation of two nucleosides; spongouridine and spongothymidine from the sponge *Tectitethya crypta* Laubenfels (Oliveira *et al.*, 2012). This pioneering discovery led to the synthesis of the anticancer drug Cytarabine, used in the treatment of acute myeloid leukemia and the antiviral drug Vidarabine, used in the treatment of herpes virus infection (Oliveira *et al.*, 2012). Marine organisms live in an environment significantly different from its terrestrial counterparts, thereby suggesting that the secondary metabolite profiles of marine organism may differ in terms of its chemical structures and pharmacological activities (Lu *et al.*, 2010; Debbab *et al.*, 2013). The marine ecosystem is known to be governed by harsh biological, physical and chemical parameters which may have given rise to novel metabolic pathways, thus leading to the production of chemicals with interesting structures (Oliveira *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, compounds from natural resources possess high affinities towards target molecules

rendering them as effective drug candidates (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2012). Worldwide, over 10,000 metabolites have been isolated from marine organisms mainly; sponges, soft corals, fungi and bacteria (Ebel, 2012). Due to the broad spectrum of chemical properties of marine natural products, they are known to exhibit a wide range of bioactivities including; antimicrobial, anticancer, anti-tuberculosis, antiviral, anti-parasitic, anti-helminthic, anti-malarial, anti-protozoal, anti-coagulant, anti-platelet, anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, and antitumor activities (Jones, 2008; Imhoff *et al.*, 2011).

Over the years, the search for natural products from marine organisms have evolved from merely isolation and description of natural compounds, to more intensive studies such as the investigation of their biological properties and most importantly, the biosynthetic pathways leading to the production of these natural compounds to ensure sustained production for pharmaceutical applications (Suyama *et al.*, 2011). A variety of marine organisms have been studied for natural products over the years, and they include; plants, invertebrates, algae, bacteria, fungi and protozoa (Gul *et al.*, 2005). Overall, marine derived fungi are now widely accepted as promising sources for the discovery of novel compounds with pharmaceutical properties. According to Bhatnagar *et al.* (2012), marine derived fungi are the major producers of antibacterial compounds among marine microbial flora. Keeping in mind the underestimated biodiversity of marine derived fungi, we can expect marine derived fungi to play a prominent role in the discovery of bioactive chemical compounds, to serve as potential drug candidates in line with the growing need of new natural products.

2.2 Marine derived fungi

Fungi are classified as lower eukaryotes and are also known as heterotrophic osmotrophs (Dick, 1997). They are incapable of synthesizing their own food but rather obtain nutrients directly from dead or living organisms or materials (Dick, 1997). Previously mistaken to be associated with the plant kingdom, modern biologists have now categorized them into their own kingdom known as “The fifth kingdom”. Fungi were known to be diverse some 600 million years ago and have continued diversifying to such an extent that they are now classified into numerous groups (Dick, 1997). Worldwide, there are about 100,000 known fungal species and around 800 new species being named new to science every year (Jones *et al.*, 2012)

The 1991 hypothesis of having approximately 1.5 million fungal species on Earth by Hawksworth *et al.* (2011) is now considered an underestimate by many (Blackwell, 2011). Recent use of molecular methods in the classification of fungi has given rise to a new estimate of fungal diversity at about 5.1 million species (Blackwell, 2011). Fungi can range from microfungi such as molds and yeasts to macrofungi such as mushrooms and truffles. Certain types of macrofungi are considered delicacies and thus widely cultivated by humans for food supply. Microfungi can cause positive or negative impacts. Some microfungi are considered pathogenic and harmful to humans, animals and plants, while others are known to be producers of metabolites and enzymes proven beneficial to human life (Bennett, 1998).

Marine fungi are microorganisms that complete their entire life cycle in the sea whereby they can grow and sporulate exclusively in the marine habitat (Kohlmeyer *et al.*, 2003; Hooley *et al.*, 2006). According to Kohlmeyer *et al.* (2003), in a broad ecological definition, marine fungi are classified into two groups; obligate marine fungi, which are able to grow and sporulate exclusively in a marine habitat and secondly, facultative marine fungi, also known as marine derived fungi which are those from

freshwater or terrestrial habitat but is able to grow and possibly sporulate in the marine environment. Besides that, marine derived fungi can also be categorized based on their niche or in other words, the habitats and substrata that they occupy. Kohlmeyer *et al.* (1991) described four ecological groupings of fungi namely; lignicolous, arenicolous, algicolous and manglicolous fungi. Lignicolous fungi grow on submerged woody material mainly driftwood while arenicolous fungi are associated with sand grains. Follicolous fungi are found on leaves immersed or shed in the marine habitat while fungi isolated from submerged mangrove parts are called manglicolous fungi. Algicolous fungi are specific for fungi that occur on marine algae (Kohlmeyer *et al.*, 1991).

Buee *et al.* (2009) characterized functional ecological groups of fungi by linking fungal diversities to their niches in the environment. Currently, there are three functional ecological groups of fungi namely; parasitic, saprotrophic and mutualistic (Buee *et al.*, 2009). Parasitic fungi are fungi that depend on a host organism for nutrition and protection in turn, causing harm to the host organism. On the other hand, mutualistic fungi are fungi that are attached to a host organism where both fungi and host benefit from this association. Saprotrophic fungi are a group of fungi that are normally found on decaying matter such as plants or animals.

2.2.1 Natural products from marine derived fungi

Soil fungi and terrestrial plants have long been the focus as natural product reservoirs; however, chemical compounds isolated from these sources have been known to produce repeated chemical structures with common carbon backbones (Ebel, 2012). As the requirement for new therapeutic agents is ever increasing, scientists have now shifted focus upon diverse sources such as, thermophiles from ocean vents, soils subject to extreme radiation, endolithic fungi, marine organisms and endophytes (Jones *et al.*,

2008). The 1990's showed a drastic increase in marine microbial metabolites that continues until today, and marine derived fungi from various substrates have been recognized as a rich resource of novel bioactive metabolites with potential biomedical applications (Zhang *et al.*, 2008a). Figure 2.1 shows the percentage of new compounds from marine derived fungi based on the various substrates that they were isolated from. Based on Figure 2.1, it is noted that the highest percentage of new compounds were from the marine derived fungi isolated from algae, sponges and sediments including deep sea at 21%, 19% and 16% respectively.

Many metabolites from marine derived fungi have shown to possess antimicrobial, antifungal, cytotoxic, antitumor, immuno-stimulatory, antiviral and kinase inhibitory activity (Wu *et al.*, 2008). Reports suggest that the majority of marine natural products have novel pharmaceutical values (Davidson, 1995; Liberra *et al.*, 1995; Jensen *et al.*, 2002; Bringmann *et al.*, 2005). The groups of chemical compounds of marine fungal origin are divided into seven groups namely; polyketides, alkaloids, terpenoids, peptides, prenylated polyketides, shikimates and lipids. According to Figure 2.2, the majority of marine derived fungi secondary metabolites are from the chemical group polyketides and alkaloids groups. Some of the reported secondary metabolites of marine derived fungi origin are listed in Table 2.1 while selected chemical compounds are shown in Figure 2.3.

It is believed that due to harsh environmental factors, marine derived fungi are expected to produce high numbers of active secondary metabolites with unique structures (Vongvilai *et al.*, 2004). A study by Pan *et al.* (2008) reported the discovery of 42 new compounds and 35 known compounds from marine derived fungi isolated from South China Sea. To date, more than 500 new natural products have been isolated from marine derived fungi (Rateb *et al.*, 2010). The first report of a bioactive natural product from a marine derived fungus dates back to the 1940s when cephalosporin C

was isolated from the fungus *Acremonium chrysogenum* Gams collected from a sewage outlet in the Mediterranean Sea (Proksch *et al.*, 2008). Cephalosporin C is the precursor chemical compound of modern cephalosporin antibiotics (Proksch *et al.*, 2008). Existing modern drugs of fungal origin include b-lactam antibiotics, griseofulvin, cyclosporine A, taxol, ergot alkaloids, and lovastatin (Suryanarayanan *et al.*, 2009). Ongoing research on the secondary metabolite chemistry of marine derived fungi has led to the discovery of numerous novel compounds with promising pharmacological potential such as those with anti-cancer and anti-microbial properties (Proksch *et al.*, 2008). There are numerous marine derived fungi reported to produce compounds with interesting bioactivities. One such example is the marine derived fungus *Aspergillus* sp. which has been widely known to produce many novel chemical compounds such as azonazine with anti-inflammatory activities, spirotryprostatin with phyto-regulating activities and the anti-cancer compound, diphenly (Liu *et al.*, 2006; Ebel, 2010; Afiyatullov *et al.*, 2012). Kitano *et al.* (2012), reported the discovery of a new anti-tumour metabolite, pileotin A from *Aspergillus* sp isolated from a sea urchin. The marine derived fungi *Gymnascella* sp. has also been widely studied over the years and has been known to produce Gymnastatins, Gymnasterones and Dankastatins with promising anti-tumour and cytostatic activities (Amagata *et al.*, 1998; Amagata *et al.*, 2008). Extensive research has also been carried out to explore the antimicrobial properties of fungal secondary metabolites to cope with the ever increasing occurrence of microbial drug resistance. A study by Gallardo *et al.* (2006), reported the isolation of amides of D-allo and L-isoleucine derivative with antibacterial and antifungal properties from the marine derived fungi *Acremonium furcatum*. A recent study by Caballero *et al.* (2013) reported the production of toluquinol, a strong inhibitor of angiogenesis thus making this compound a promising drug candidate for further evaluation to treat cancer and other angiogenesis-related conditions.

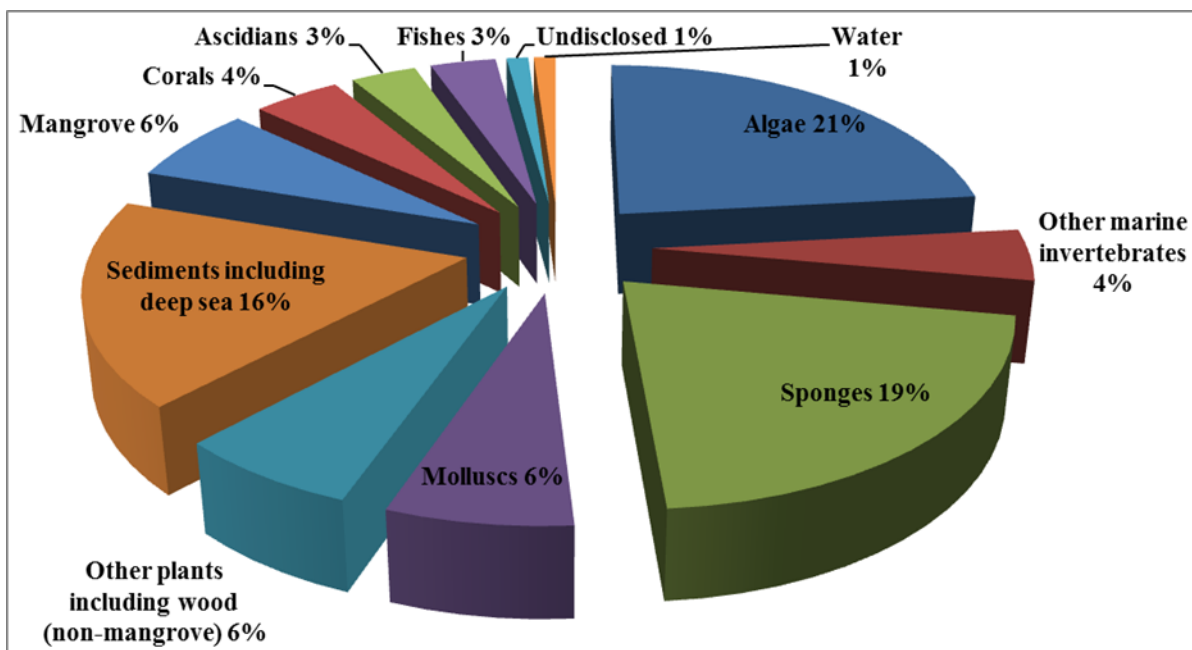


Figure 2.1: Percentage of new compounds from marine derived fungi with respect to the fungi source and substrates (Ebel, 2012)

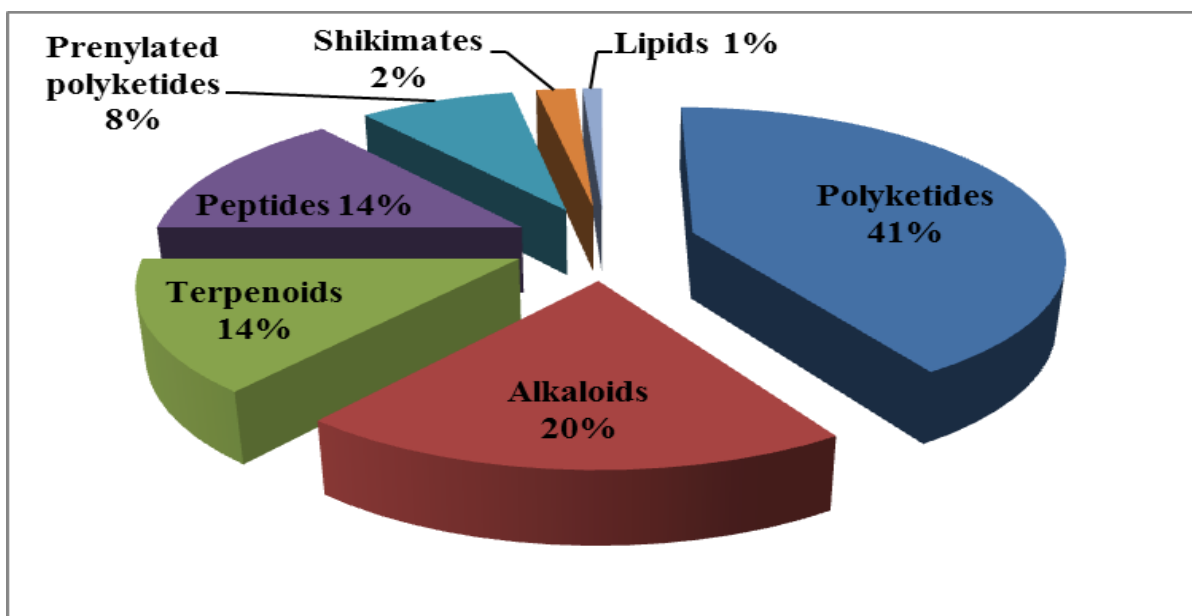


Figure 2.2: Percentage of new compounds from marine derived fungi with respect to their chemical grouping (Ebel, 2012)

Table 2.1: Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi

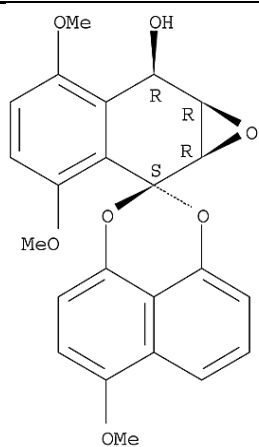
Fungi identified	New compound	Bioactivity	Reference
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	Penicillazine	Antibacterial	Iwatsuki <i>et al.</i> , 2011
	Cephalosporolides H-I		Li <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Biverlactones A-D		Bringmann <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	Sorbifuranones A-C		
	Sorbicillinoid		
<i>Penicillium citrinum</i>	Benzopyranones	Antimicrobial	Khamthong <i>et al.</i> , 2012
	Isochroman	Antimicrobial	
	Anthraquinone-citrinin derivatives	Antimicrobial	
	Citrin derivatives	Anticancer	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2011
	Penicitrinols C-E	Anticancer	
<i>Penicillium aurantiogriseum</i>	Verrucisidinol	Antimicrobial	Yu <i>et al.</i> , 2010a
	Verrucosidinol acetate	Antimicrobial	
<i>Penicillium commune</i>	Comazaphilones A-F	Antimicrobial, Anticancer	Gao <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	Xyloallenolide A		Lin <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Xyloketal A-H		Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	Paeciloxanthone	Antibacterial, Anticancer	Wen <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Eutypella scoparia</i>	7,8-dihydroxy-3,5,7-trimethyl-8,8a-dihydro-1H-isochromen-6(7H)-one	Anticancer	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2012
	6-(hydroxymethyl)-2,2-dimethyl-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,4-diol	Anticancer	
<i>Stysanus</i> -like sp.	Hypoxylin A-B		Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2005
<i>Tryblidiopycnis</i> sp.	Chloro-monoterpene		Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Guignardia</i> sp.	Vermistatin	Anticancer, Antifungal	Xia <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Ascochyta</i> sp.	Ascochytatin	Antibacterial	Kanoh <i>et al.</i> , 2008a
	Ascosalipyrrolidinone A	Antimicrobial	
	Ascospiroketals A-B		
<i>Zygosporium</i> sp.	Sulfoalkylresorcinol	Antibacterial	Kanoh <i>et al.</i> , 2008b
<i>Phomopsis</i> sp.	Phomolide B	Antibacterial	Du <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Nodulisporium</i> sp.	Nodulisporacid A	Antimalarial	Kasetrathat <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Chaetomium</i> sp.	Chaetoxanthone B	Antimalarial, Antiprotozoal	Pontius <i>et al.</i> , 2008a
	Chaetominedione	Anticancer	Abdel-Lateff, 2008

Table 2.1, continued

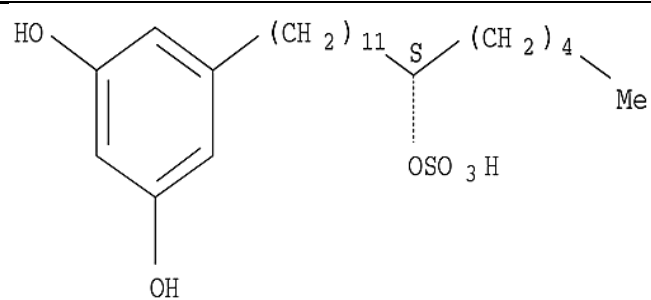
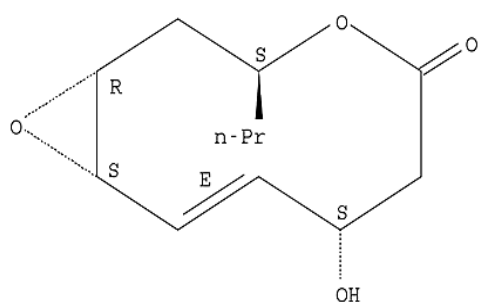
<i>Chaetomium globosum</i>	Chaetoglobosin Fex	Anti-inflammatory	Dou <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Aspergillus insulicola</i>	Cytoglobosins A-G	Anticancer	Cui <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Aspergillus sulphureus</i>	Azonazine	Anticancer	Wu <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Aspergillus carbonarius</i>	Decumbenone C	Anticancer	Zhuravleva <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Periconia</i> sp.	8'-O-Demethylnigerone	Anti-tuberculosis	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008a
<i>Aigialus parvus</i>	8'-O-Demethylisonigerone	Anti-tuberculosis	
<i>Exophiala</i> sp.	Macrosphelide M	Xanthine oxidase inhibition	Yamada <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Lignincola laevis</i>	Peribysin J	Antimalarial, Anticancer	Isaka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
<i>Monodictys putredinis</i>	Aigialomycins A-E	Anticancer	
<i>Verruculina enalia</i>	Hypothemycin	Anticancer	
<i>Halorosellinia oceanica</i>	Aigialone	Anticancer	Vongvilai <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Aigialospirol	Anticancer	
<i>Monodictys putredinis</i>	Circumdatin I	Ultraviolet protecting	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008b
<i>Verruculina enalia</i>	7-hydroxyergosterol	Anticancer	Abraham <i>et al.</i> , 1994
<i>Halorosellinia oceanica</i>	Monodictysin C	Anticancer	Krick <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Monodictyochromes A-B	Anticancer	Pontius <i>et al.</i> , 2008b
<i>Halorosellinia oceanica</i>	Monomeric xanthones	Anticancer	
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Enalin A	Antimicrobial, Anti-diabetic	Lin <i>et al.</i> , 2002
<i>Halorosellinia oceanica</i>	2-hexylidene-3-methylsuccinic acid	Anticancer, Antimalarial	Chinworrungsee <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Cytochasin	Anticancer	
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	5-carboxymellein	Anticancer, Antimalarial	
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Halorosellins A-B	Antimalarial, Antimycobacterial	Chinworrungsee <i>et al.</i> , 2002
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Hypoxylin A-B		
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Sesquiterpenoid lactone		
<i>Acremonium striatisporum</i>	Acremolides A-D	Unknown	Ratnayake <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Acremonium furcatum</i>	Lipodepsipeptides	Anticancer	Afiyatullof <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Acremonium strictum</i>	Diterpenic altrosides	Anticancer	
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Amides of D-allo	Antimicrobial	Gallardo <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Amides of L-isoleucine	Antimicrobial	
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Acremolin	Anticancer	Julianti <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Acremostrcitin	Antibacterial	Julianti <i>et al.</i> , 2011

Table 2.1, continued

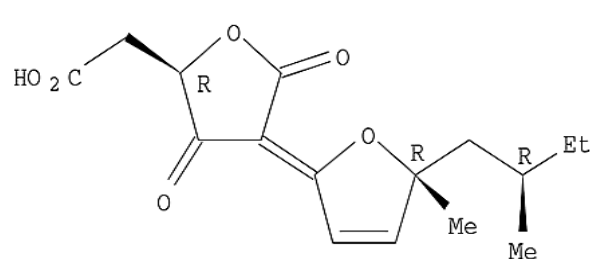
<i>Gymnascella</i> sp.	Gymnastatins Q-R Dankasterone Dankastatins A-B Gymnasterone	Anticancer Anticancer Anticancer Anticancer	Amagata <i>et al.</i> , 2008 Amagata <i>et al.</i> , 1998
<i>Gymnascella dankaliensis</i>	Gymnastatins A-C Gymnastatins F-H	Anticancer Anticancer	Numata <i>et al.</i> , 1997 Amagata <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	Diphenyl ether Pileotin	Anticancer	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2006 Kitano <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	Spirotryprostatin	Phytoregulating	Afiyatullof <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Fusarium</i> sp.	Fusaranthraquinone Fusarnaphthoquinones A-C Fusarone	Antimicrobial, Antimycobacterial, Antimalarial, Anticancer	Trisuwan <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Deuteromycete</i> sp.	Deuteromycols A-B Benzofuranoids	Antibacterial Antibacterial	Nawwar <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Phoma herbarum</i>	Arthrospadiol C Massarilactone H	Neuraminidase inhibitory Neuraminidase inhibitory	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Botryotinia</i> sp.	Botcinin	Anti-diabetic	Kim <i>et al.</i> , 2012



Ascochyatin

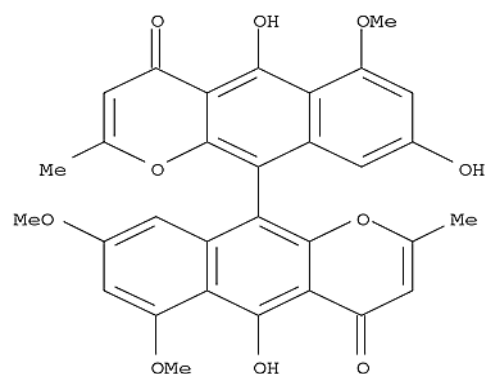
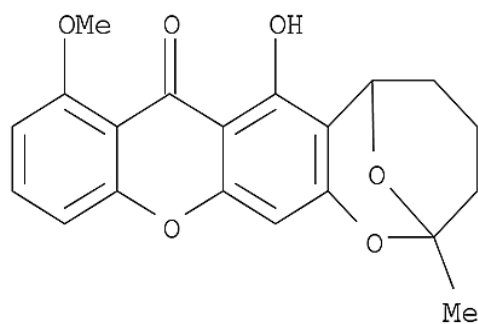


Sulfoalkylresorcinol



Nodulisporacid A

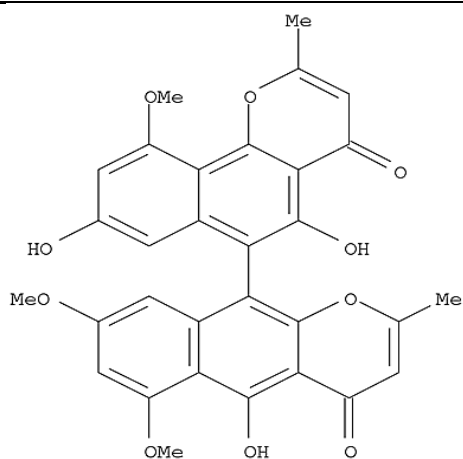
Phomolide B



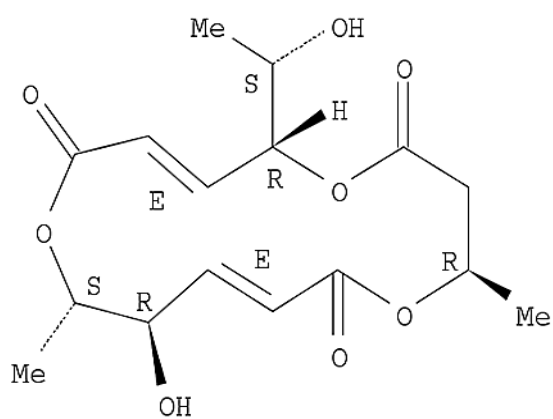
Chaetoxanthone B

8'-O-Demethylnigerone

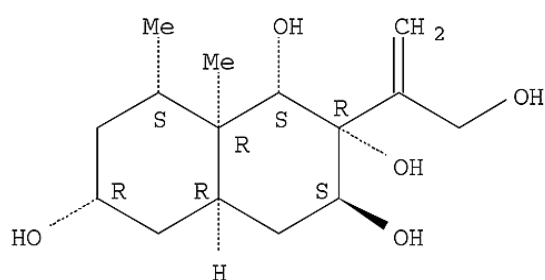
Figure 2.3: Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi



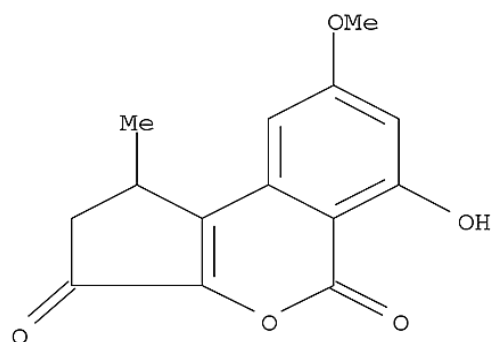
8'-O-Demethylisonigerone



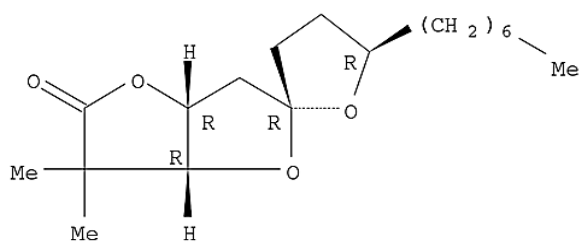
Macrospheptide M



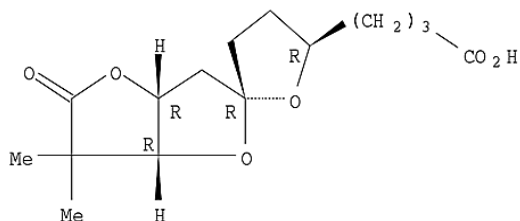
Peribysin J



1-Deoxyrubralactone

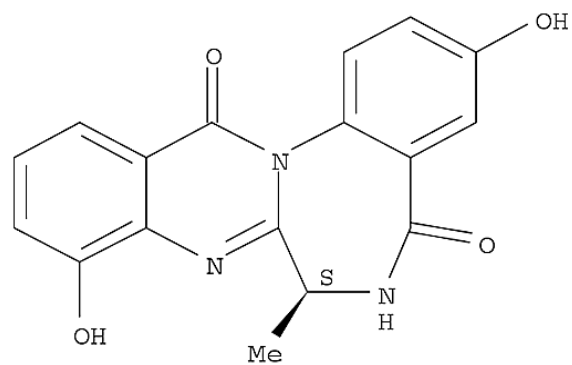
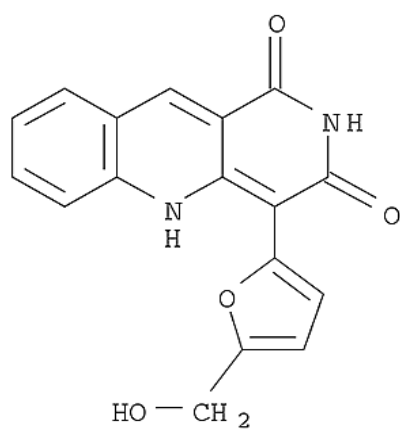


Cephalosporolides H



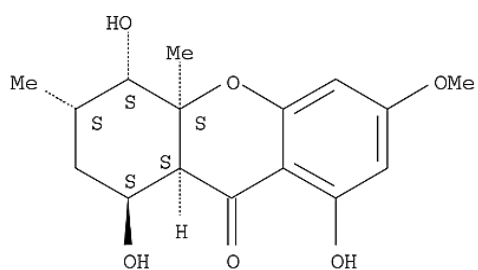
Cephalosporolides I

Figure 2.3: Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi (continued)

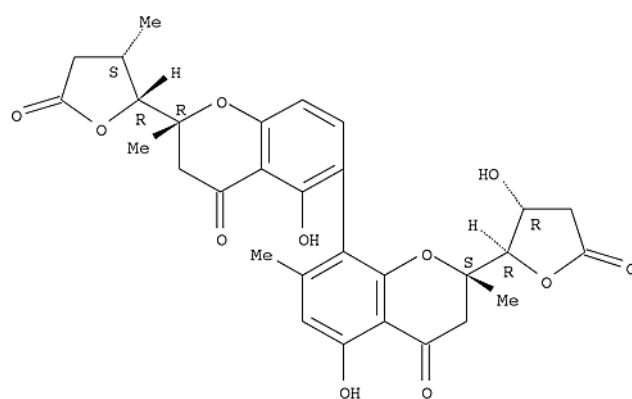


Circumdatin I

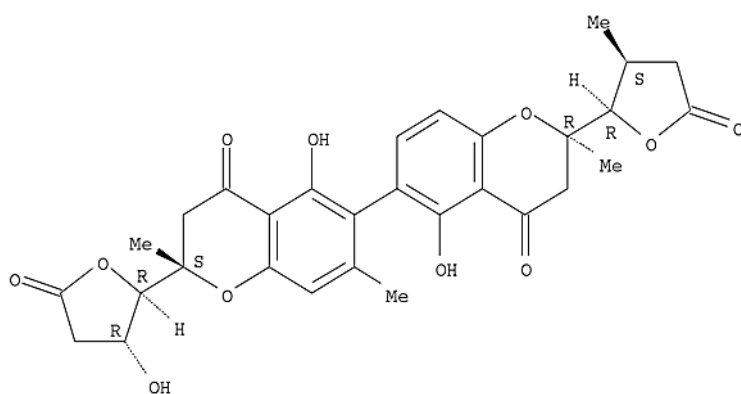
Chaetominedione



Monodictysin C



Monodictyochrome A



Monodictyochrome B

Figure 2.3: Secondary metabolites from selected marine derived fungi (continued)

2.2.2 Antibacterial compounds from marine derived fungi and their mechanisms

The first antibacterial compound isolated from an obligate marine fungi was cephalosporin C from the fungi *Cephalosporium acremonium* (now named *Acremonium chrysogenum*) (Bugni *et al.*, 2004). Cephalosporin C is the precursor molecule that led to the development of modern day cephalosporins that are used in the treatment of infections caused by Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria (Liu *et al.*, 2011). Cephalosporins belong to the beta lactam class of antibiotics similar with penicillin, in which they possess the beta-lactam ring (Liu *et al.*, 2011). Cephalosporins are bacteriocidal in their mode of action, whereby they interfere with the synthesis of the bacterial cell wall (Liu *et al.*, 2011). The proper formation of the cell wall is essential for the growth of the bacteria and peptidoglycan is an important component in the cell wall that provides stability through its cross-linked latticework structure (Singh *et al.*, 1999). Beta-lactam antibiotics generally inhibit the completion of the cross-links by the membrane bound transpeptidase enzyme thus killing the bacteria (Singh *et al.*, 1999).

The majority of new compounds from marine derived fungi are polyketides, which also encompasses the antibiotic class macrolides (Ebel, 2012). There have been reports on the isolation of antibacterial macrolides from marine derived fungi (Isaka *et al.*, 2002; Shiomi *et al.*, 2002). Macrolides are a group of drugs with the presence of the macrolide ring and possesses bacteriostatic activities (Shiomi *et al.*, 2002). Macrolides are protein synthesis inhibitors, whereby they inhibit the biosynthesis of bacterial protein by binding to the large ribosomal subunit, close to the peptidyl transferase center thus preventing the formation of peptide bonds during protein elongation (Tenson *et al.*, 2003). Alkaloids are the second major fraction of new metabolites from marine derived fungi (Ebel, 2012) with reports that certain alkaloids produced by these organisms possess antibacterial activities (Li *et al.*, 2006; Du *et al.*, 2012). Studies have reported that antibacterial alkaloids exert its antibacterial activity by inhibiting the

transpeptidase enzyme sortase A, thus interrupting bacterial cell wall formation (Mayer *et al.*, 2013). Marine derived fungi are also known to produce antibacterial diterpenes, a type of terpene (Gao *et al.*, 2011). Although the mechanism of action of diterpenes from marine derived fungi have not been extensively studied upon, Ghosh *et al.* (2013) stated that diterpenes with antibacterial activities usually exert their action by causing significant bacterial cell membrane damage leading to cell leakage.

2.3 Manglicolous and endophytic marine derived fungi as potential natural product reservoirs

2.3.1 Manglicolous fungi

Mangroves are wetland forests located along the intertidal areas of estuarine sea coasts and river mouths in tropical and subtropical parts of the world (Logesh *et al.*, 2012). It is believed that 25% of the world's tropical coastlines across 112 countries, covering an approximate area of 150,000-181,000 km² are dominated by mangroves (Sridhar *et al.*, 2012). The mangroves of Malaysia ranks 6th largest in the world with a total coverage area of 6458.5 km², of which 1097.95 km² is in Peninsular Malaysia and 5360.55 km² is located in East Malaysia (Spalding *et al.*, 2010). Mangroves are known to be one of the most productive ecosystems with intense carbon recycling, thus making them excellent harbors of fungi lifeforms (Arfi *et al.*, 2012).

Manglicolous fungi can be classified into five main groups namely; terrestrial, phylloplane, parasites, saprobes and endophytes (Sridhar *et al.*, 2012). Manglicolous fungi are commonly found on submerged areas of mangroves, growing on substrates such as wood, leaf, seagrass, sediments, soil, sand, algae, coral and calcareous materials and they are considered the second largest group of marine fungi (Hyde, 1990).

The role of fungi in the ecosystem of the mangrove is considered vital as they act as decomposers of organic matter (Sridhar *et al.*, 2012). The first manglicolous fungus was reportedly isolated from Australia by Cribb *et al.* (1955). All major fungi taxa namely; Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Deuteromycota, thraustochytrids and lower fungi, can be found in the tropical and sub-tropical mangroves (Jones *et al.*, 1997). The unique characteristics of the mangroves such as semi-saline surroundings with periodic flooding, supports an array of diverse microorganisms with the ability to produce novel compounds due to their interactions with their habitat (Amrani *et al.*, 2012).

Marine derived fungi associated with mangrove plants such as *Rhizophora mucronata*, *Rhizophora apiculata* and *Avicenna officinalis* have been reported to produce new and novel compounds beneficial to medicine and agrochemicals (Bhimba *et al.*, 2011; Rukachaisirikul *et al.*, 2012). Pan *et al.* (2008) and Li *et al.* (2010) reported that the mangrove habitat along the South China Sea coastline has served as a reservoir for marine derived fungi with novel secondary metabolites.

2.3.2 Host plant and endophytic fungi

Plant scientists believed that there may be an unaccounted number of organisms known as endophytes that reside within the inter-cellular spaces of plant tissue (Strobel, 2003). Endophytes are defined as microorganisms (bacteria or fungi) that reside inside the tissues of an otherwise healthy plant also known as the host plant (Strobel, 2003). The symbiotic relationship between an endophytic fungi and its host plant holds a major role in structuring plant communities by affecting colonization, competition, coexistence and soil nutrient dynamics (Borges *et al.*, 2009). During this symbiotic relationship, neither the host plant nor the fungi is harmed in any way. The fungi benefits by gaining protection and nutrients from the plant, in return the fungi produces certain secondary metabolites that benefits the host plant and protects it from pathogens and herbivores (Kusari *et al.*, 2012).

Scientists have come up with a theory that links these long term host-endophyte interactions to the development of specialized genetic systems in the endophytes to facilitate the transfer of information from host plant to endophyte. This way, there is an exchange of biochemical pathways allowing the endophytes to produce compounds similar or common to their host plant (Borges *et al.*, 2009). These secondary metabolites, harbors diverse therapeutic activities applicable in medicine and there have been instances where the fungi is able to produce certain chemical compounds similar to

its host; a known example is the compound taxol, originally isolated from the Pacific Yew tree which was also isolated from the endophytic fungi *Taxus andreanae* (Radic *et al.*, 2012). Studies have reported that in comparison to novel compounds from soil microflora, 51% of compounds isolated from endophytic fungi were previously unreported (Strobel, 2003). Radic *et al.* (2012) stated that the number of secondary metabolites reported from endophytic fungi is larger than that from any other endophytic microorganism. However, this may also be due to the frequency of isolation of endophytic fungi from plants (Radic *et al.*, 2012).

According to Yu *et al.* (2010b), in order to obtain endophytic fungi prone to producing novel compounds, there are several criterias to consider when selecting the endophyte host plant namely; plants in areas of high biodiversity, plants in harsh or challenging habitats, plants surrounded by pathogen infected plants, plants with traditional medicinal values and lastly plants occupying a certain ancient land mass.

Research shows that there are over 300,000 plant species on earth, and it is estimated that there may be one or more endophytic fungi residing in each individual plant. However over the one million species of endophytic fungi estimated, only a small fraction has been described and recorded (Yu *et al.*, 2010b). With regards to the estimated abundance of plant endophytic fungi yet to be explored and the ever increasing number of novel and interesting compounds isolated from these fungi, it is justified that these group of fungi can be untapped reservoirs of unique and biologically potent compounds with high commercial potential (Shiono *et al.*, 2011; Cheng *et al.*, 2012).

2.4 Bacterial resistance and nosocomial infections

More than 30% of the world's populations are likely affected by bacterial infections with roughly two million fatalities recorded each year (Monaghan *et al.*, 2006). Antibiotic resistance is fast emerging as a threat to the success of medical interventions of health care, at local, national and even global dimensions thereby creating clinical and therapeutic challenges to human health (Monaghan *et al.*, 2006). When continuously exposed to antibiotic compounds especially in the hospital environment, bacteria that are generally considered as normal human flora tend to develop significant antibacterial resistance to the antibiotics (Grundmann *et al.*, 2011). Most of these bacteria are truly opportunistic pathogens, thus the segment of society most vulnerable are usually the young, elderly and immune-compromised individuals (Grundmann *et al.*, 2011). The European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC) rated antimicrobial resistance as one of the major infectious disease threats in Europe due to increasing levels of multidrug-resistance bacteria. A study by Zaidi *et al.* (2005), reported that 70% of hospital acquired neonatal infections could not be treated successfully with the drug regimen recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO). The development of new antibacterial agents against these multidrug-resistant bacteria is therefore regarded as crucial to public health need (Moran *et al.*, 2011). Nosocomial infection is defined as an infection acquired in the hospital by a patient whose illness upon admission was independent of the infection. The timeline of infection is within 48 hours of hospital admission, 3 days of discharge or 30 days of surgery (Inweregbu *et al.*, 2005). The WHO reported that at any one time, over 14 million people worldwide suffer from complication due to nosocomial infections. Nosocomial infections occur worldwide affecting both developed and poor countries causing significant burden to both patient and public health (World Health Organization, 2002; Centers for Disease Control, 2013)

2.4.1 Characteristics of test bacteria and their relation to nosocomial infections

2.4.1.1 Staphylococcus aureus

Staphylococcus aureus are Gram positive, non-motile, catalase positive, spherical shaped bacterium (cocci) (Hait, 2012). Upon microscopic examination, these microorganisms appear either in pairs, short chains or in a bunch like grape cluster (Hait, 2012). This bacterium is commonly found in soil, water, air, and also possess the ability to live in humans and animals (Hait, 2012). They are one of the most resistant non-spore-forming human pathogens which are able to survive in dry states for long (Hait, 2012).

Research has shown that approximately 20% of the human population carry this bacterium in their nasal cavity (Weidenmaier *et al.*, 2012). Although commonly acting as a commensal, this bacterium can also evolve into a human pathogen triggering a wide range of acute and chronic diseases (Weidenmaier *et al.*, 2012). *Staphylococcus aureus* is the predominant agent associated with staphylococcal food poisoning; where they produce enterotoxins that are fast acting and usually is not destroyed by the heat introduced during cooking of contaminated food (Gadepalli *et al.*, 2009).

Staphylococcus aureus is the most frequently isolated microorganism in skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs), which is the common cause of morbidity in hospitalized patients around the world (Gadepalli *et al.*, 2009). However the development of antimicrobial resistance has further complicated treatment management of these infections (Gadepalli *et al.*, 2009). Some of the other diseases associated with this bacterium are; toxic shock syndrome, pneumonia, postoperative wound infection and nosocomial bacteremia (Hait, 2012).

Staphylococcus aureus is fast becoming resistant to standard commercial antibiotics with the emergence of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) and vancomycin-resistant *S. aureus* (VRSA) (Joo *et al.*, 2012). Reports show that MRSA is

the main cause of healthcare associated infection with a record number of two to fifty-three million human carriers worldwide and a mortality rate of about 20% (Joo *et al.*, 2012).

2.4.1.2 *Bacillus cereus*

Bacillus cereus is a Gram positive, motile, rod-shaped bacterium with haemolytic activity and is able to form heat resistant endospores (Tallent, 2012). They are classified as saprobes and are thus widespread in the environment, commonly found in soil and plants (Tallent, 2012). The main disease associated with *B. cereus* is food poisoning caused by the necrotic enterotoxin produced by this bacterium when contaminated food are consumed (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Tallent, 2012). Although cooking can kill the bacterium, the toxin might still be active (Tallent, 2012).

There are two ways this bacterium can induce food poisoning, firstly the production of toxins in the intestine when contaminated food is ingested and secondly, *B. cereus* can also produce a different kind of toxin in contaminated food especially in starchy foods like rice (Tallent, 2012). The toxins produced by this bacterium are also responsible for invasive infections such as panophthalmitis, pneumonia, endocarditis, meningitis or septicaemia, especially in immunocompromised patients (Dubouix *et al.*, 2005). *Bacillus cereus* has been listed as one of the foodborne microorganisms of public health significance and foodborne illnesses (Lee *et al.*, 2009).

2.4.1.3 *Bacillus subtilis*

Bacillus subtilis is a Gram positive, catalase positive, rod-shaped bacterium that is able to form tough, protective endospores (Bridier *et al.*, 2012). This bacterium is commonly found in the soil and is rarely associated with human infections in contrary to *B. cereus* (Bridier *et al.*, 2012). However, recent research by Bridier *et al.* (2012), reported the

isolation of an antimicrobial resistant *B. subtilis* from an endoscope washer-disinfector in the hospital environment. The *B. subtilis* strain isolated in the study by Bridier *et al.* (2012) was able to produce a thick immersed biofilm with specific protruding structures and displayed protective characteristics towards *S. aureus*. The finding by Bridier *et al.* (2012) could serve to prove that although never once thought to be pathogenic, *B. subtilis* may be emerging as a causal agent in nosocomial infections and may in fact aggravate the effects primarily caused by other nosocomial pathogens.

2.4.1.4 *Micrococcus luteus*

Micrococcus luteus is a Gram positive, spherical (cocci) bacterium that are commonly found on the human skin and mucosal membranes of otherwise healthy individuals and have been rarely associated as human pathogens (Oprica, 2009). Although considered to be part of the normal flora of the skin, *M. luteus* is still noted as a contaminant when isolated from clinical specimens (Oprica, 2009). This bacterium is an opportunistic pathogen normally affecting immune-compromised individuals causing diseases such as bacteraemia and sepsis, endocarditis, pneumonia, peritonitis, central nervous system infection, and traumatic and post-operative endophthalmitis (Miller *et al.*, 2007). In the hospital environment, this bacterium has been closely associated with indwelling intravenous lines and dialysis among others (Altuntas *et al.*, 2004).

2.4.1.5 *Enterococcus faecalis*

Enterococcus faecalis is a Gram positive, catalase-negative, spherical and ovoid bacterium that usually occurs singly, in pairs or in chains (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). *Enterococcus faecalis* is usually a commensal in human and animal gastrointestinal tracts and thus usually recovered from faeces and clinical specimens (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). This bacterium is an opportunistic pathogen and is able to tolerate harsh

conditions producing virulence factors such as, cytolysin/hemolysin and adhesins among others (Gil *et al.*, 2009). The toxin cytolysin produced by some *E. faecalis* strains display both haemolytic and bactericidal activities, which upon ingestion, may cause diarrhoea, cramps, nausea, vomiting, fever and chills in otherwise healthy individuals; thus giving this bacterium an added advantage to survive in extreme conditions and eliminate competition (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). The people most likely to suffer serious problems are usually those with underlying illnesses and immune-compromised individuals (Zhang, *et al.*, 2012).

The emergence of vancomycin-resistant and multi-drug resistant enterococci strains poses a global threat to human health and may possess serious impact on human healthcare (Gil *et al.*, 2009). In the hospital environment, this bacterium has been reported to be the frequent cause of endocarditis, bacteraemia, urinary and wound infections (Gil *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, studies by Stuart *et al.* (2006) reported that *E. faecalis* is the main cause of asymptomatic, persistent endodontic infections ranging from 24% to 77%.

2.4.1.6 *Escherichia coli*

Escherichia coli is a Gram negative, rod-shaped bacterium predominantly found as a commensal in the human gut (Wu *et al.*, 2012). Although commonly associated as normal intestinal flora, there are six pathogenic groups namely; entero-toxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), entero-pathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC), entero-hemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC), entero-invasive *E. coli* (EIEC), entero-aggregative *E. coli* (EAEC), and diffusely adherent *E. coli* (DAEC) (Feng, 2012). ETEC has been known to cause travellers' diarrhoea with the World Health Organization (WHO) attributing 380,000 deaths each year, mainly among children (Feng, 2012). Infantile diarrhoea is usually associated with EPEC with mortality rates ranging from 25% to 50% (Feng, 2012). One of the more harmful *E. coli*

strain is the EHEC which produces Shiga toxins (Feng, 2012). Infections of EHEC can range from mild diarrhoea to more severe diseases such as haemorrhagic colitis causing severe abdominal cramps and bloody diarrhoea which may progress to life-threatening complications such as, thrombotic thrombocytopenia purpura (TTP) (Feng, 2012). The use of antibiotics for EHEC infections has proven to have more harm than benefits with speculation that the antibiotics lyse EHEC cells thus releasing more Shiga toxin into the infected host (Feng, 2012). EIEC is on the other hand a less harmful strain commonly causing mild bacillary dysentery with the Centre's for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) listing a death rate of zero for infections by this bacterium (Feng, 2012).

Escherichia coli is also a common pathogen associated with nosocomial urinary tract infections (UTIs) (Bonkat *et al.*, 2011). The emergence of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase *E. coli*, a strain resistant to all penicillins, first-, second- and third generation cephalosporin sans aztreonam has become an on-going problem in the hospital environment (Bonkat *et al.*, 2011).

2.4.1.7 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a Gram negative, monoflagellated, rod-shaped bacterium that are commonly found in the soil, water and also on humans and animals (Iversen *et al.*, 2008). It is an opportunistic pathogen and usually affects immune-compromised individuals (Iversen *et al.*, 2008). This bacterium is one of the leading causes of nosocomial infections, whereby almost 10% of hospital acquired infections are caused by *P. aeruginosa* and is ranked among the top ten causes of bacteraemias in hospitals (Iversen *et al.*, 2008).

Pseudomonas aeruginosa are known to be associated with several hospital acquired infections ranging from urinary tract infection, respiratory and central nervous system infections to ear, eye, bone, and skin infections (Iversen *et al.*, 2008; Bilavsky *et*

al., 2013). A severe complication associated with this bacterium is blood stream infections which carries a mortality rate ranging from 18% to 39% (Suarez *et al.*, 2009). *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* has been notoriously known to acquire and develop resistance to most standard antibiotics thus increasing the mortality rates of its infections (Suarez *et al.*, 2009).

CHAPTER 3

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Collection, isolation and identification of marine derived fungi

3.1.1 *Endophytic fungi of marine associated host plants*

The two marine associated plants chosen in this study were, *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* as shown in Figure 3.1. *Vitex rotundifolia* was collected from Kijal Beach, Terengganu (east coast, Peninsular Malaysia), while the plant *I. pes-caprae* was collected from Port Dickson Beach, Negeri Sembilan (west coast, Peninsular Malaysia).

Vitex rotundifolia, commonly known as Beach *Vitex*, is an exotic deciduous woody shrub that does not grow high but rather forms thick patches on the soil (Maddox *et al.*, 2007). Beach *Vitex* can reach one to two inches high and around twelve inches in diameter but their stem runners can grow up to 60 inches long (Maddox *et al.*, 2007). This fast growing woody vine is able to tolerate the harsh conditions of beach sand dunes whereby, they can tolerate the drought conditions of the sand on the beach as well as the salt spray from the ocean (Maddox *et al.*, 2007). Beach *Vitex* is native to Malaysia, Indonesia and Hawaii, but is also found in China, Taiwan, Japan, India, Sri Lanka, Mauritius, Australia and the Pacific Islands (Maddox *et al.*, 2007).

Ipomoea pes-caprae is a pantropical, perennial, trailing vine with pick flowers (Devall, 1992). It known to be a widely distributed beach plant, forming wide and thick continuous mats on the beach sand dunes mostly in the tropical and subtropical areas in the world (Devall, 1992).

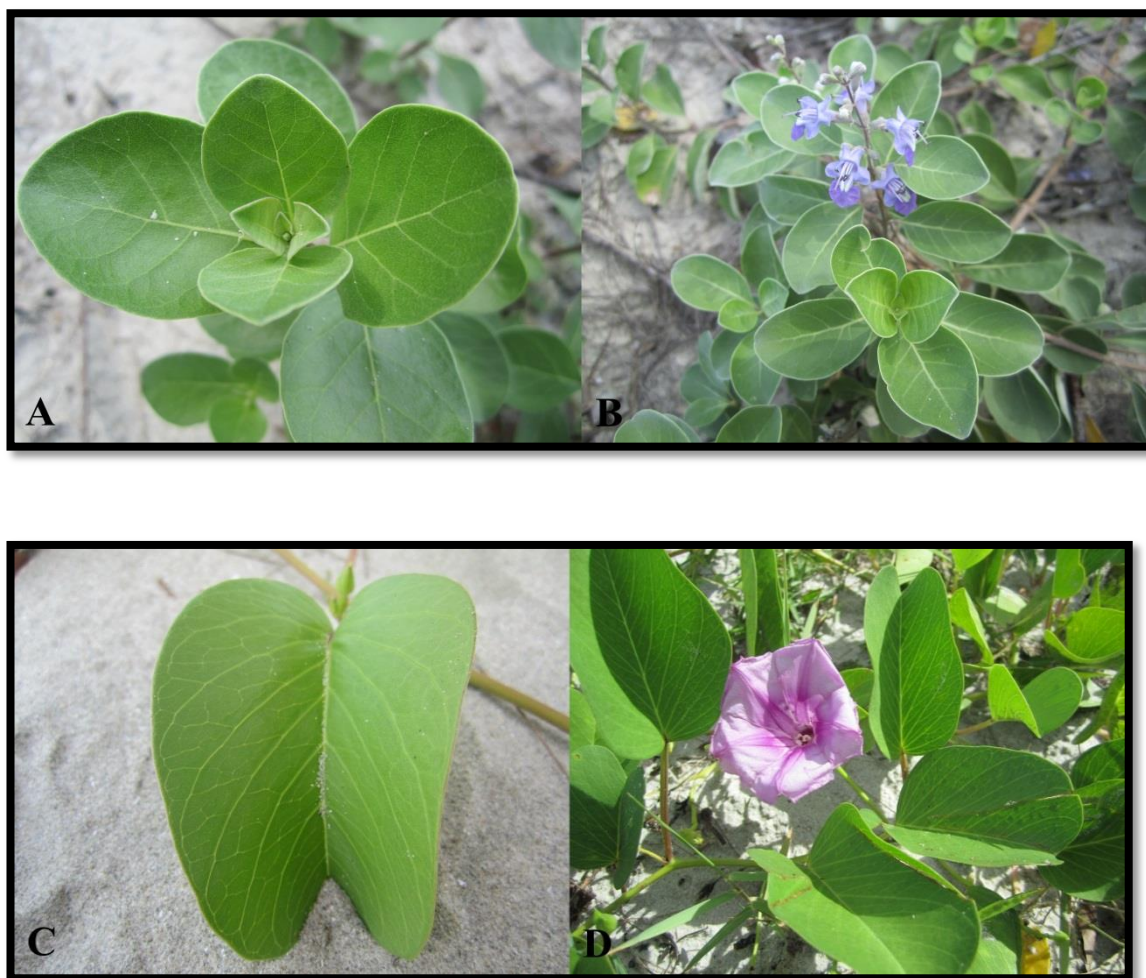


Figure 3.1: Photographs of endophytic fungi host plants. A and B: *V. rotundifolia*; C and D: *I. pes-caprae*

3.1.1.1 Collection and isolation of marine derived endophytic fungi

Whole plant materials were excised using clean scissors and placed in sterile polythene bags and transported back to the laboratory within four hours for analysis. Samples were washed with distilled water to remove surface sand and debris. The leaves and stem of the plant were then cut into standard 6 mm sizes and surface sterilized using a regimen of, 70% ethanol for two minutes followed by 4% bleach for one minute after which they were treated again with 70% ethanol for one minute and finally rinsed thrice in distilled water.

The surface sterilized plant materials were then placed on potato dextrose agar (PDA) and incubated at 37°C. The agar was observed daily for mycelia sporulation; germinating mycelia was then transferred to fresh media using a fine needle to obtain pure fungi cultures. The cultures were then transferred to agar slant and stored at 8°C until further use. The identification of the endophytic fungi was done using molecular methods as elaborated further in this dissertation.

3.1.2 Manglicolous fungi

The manglicolous fungi strains used in this study were obtained from the Institute of Biological Science (ISB) culture collection. All fungi strains were from the mangrove habitats of Peninsular Malaysia. The manglicolous fungi were maintained on PDA supplemented with 25 ppm marine salt.

Table 3.1: List of manglicolous fungi in the present study

Fungi	Culture collection number
<i>Corollospora maritima</i> Werderm.	ISB007
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i> (Kohlm. & E. Kohlm.) Hafellner	ISB001
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i>	ISB002
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i>	ISB003
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i>	ISB004
<i>Fusarium</i> sp.	ISB008
<i>Henningsomyces</i> sp.	ISB009
MF 28	ISB010
<i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i> K.D. Hyde	ISB011
<i>Verruculina enalia</i> (Kohlm.) Kohlm. & Volkm.-Kohlm.	ISB005
<i>Verruculina enalia</i>	ISB006

3.2 Molecular identification of endophytic marine derived fungi

3.2.1 Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) extraction from marine derived endophytic fungi

Extraction of DNA was carried out using the “Plant Mini DNeasy Kit” from Qiagen. Firstly the samples were homogenized using a mortar and pestle. Secondly, 400 µl of Lysis buffer and 4 µl of RNase A were added to the samples, after which the samples were vortexed and incubated for ten minutes at 65°C. Next, 130 µl Precipitation Buffer was added and mixed with the sample, followed by 5 minutes incubation period on ice. The lysate was then centrifuged for five minutes at 14,000 rpm. The lysate was further pipetted into a QIAshredder Spin Column placed in a 2ml collection tube and centrifuged for two minutes at 14, 000 rpm. The flow-through was then transferred into a new tube without disturbing the pellet and 1.5 volumes of Washing Buffer was added and mixed. About 650 µl of the mixture was then transferred into a DNeasy Mini spin column placed in a 2ml collection tube and centrifuged for one minute at 9, 000 rpm. The flow through was discarded. The spin column was then transferred into a new 2 ml collection tube and 500 µl of Washing Buffer was added followed by centrifugation for one minute at 9000 rpm. The flow through was discarded and another 500 µl of Washing Buffer was added followed by centrifugation for two minutes at 14, 000 rpm. The spin column was then transferred to a new 2 ml centrifuge tube. Lastly, 100 µl of Elution Buffer was added for elution and incubated for five minutes at room temperature (15-25°C) and centrifuged for one minute at 9, 000 rpm.

3.2.2 Preparation of agarose gel

The agarose used in this study was 10 % agarose which was prepared by dissolving 1 g of agarose powder in 100 ml of distilled water. The slurry mixture was then heated in a microwave until it turned clear. The mixture was then left to cool for about ten minutes, after which 5 µl of the staining dye Cyber Safe was added and mixed well. The agarose mixture was then poured into the gel blocks and left to solidify.

3.2.3 Preparation of Tris-acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer

The TAE buffer was prepared by adding 40 ml of the 25 times TAE stock buffer with 960 ml of distilled water to obtain 1000 ml of TAE buffer.

3.2.4 Preparation of Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer

TE buffer was made from 1 M stock of Tris-Cl at pH 7.5 and 500 mM stock of EDTA at pH 8.0. To make 1 litre of TE buffer, 10 ml 1 M Tris-Cl at pH 7.5 was added with 2 ml of 500 mM EDTA at pH 8.0. The mixture was then topped up with 988 ml of distilled water to obtain a total of 1 litre TE buffer.

3.2.5 Preparation of primer working solution

The concentration of the primer stock for both ITS 4 and ITS 5 was 100 µM. The concentration in the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) mixture should be 0.5 µM. Therefore a primer working solution of 25 µM was prepared by adding 12.5 µl of primer stock and 37.5 µl of TE buffer to obtain 50 µl of primer working solution.

3.2.6 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

The PCR reaction mixture consisted of 25 µl of PCR mix from QIAGEN, 1 µl of ITS 4 primer, 1 µl of ITS 5 primer, 2 µl of template DNA and 21 µl of RNase free water. The mixture was then placed into the thermal cycler and for initial amplification, PCR reaction mixtures were denatured for 5 minutes at 96°C, followed by 35 PCR cycles for 30 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 52°C, and 90 seconds at 72°C. The final extension step was at 72°C for 10 minutes. This cycle was programmed for 35 reactions.

After the PCR, the resultant products were runned on the agarose gel submerged in TAE buffer solution in a gel electrophoresis tank. The electrophoresis was runned at 100 Volt for 30 minutes. The presence of a distinct thick band indicated a successful PCR run. The PCR products were then sent for PCR clean-up and DNA sequencing to First Base Laboratories Sdn. Bhd for direct sequencing using the same primers.

3.2.7 Alignment of DNA sequences using MEGA 5.0 and Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST)

The ITS 1 and 2 DNA sequences of endophytic fungi were aligned using the MEGA 5.0 software and the BLAST program at the US National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.gov/>) was employed for nucleotide sequence analysis and database searches to identify the putative genus or species of the fungi. The nucleotide sequences of the endophytic fungi strains were aligned against their respective test strains to further confirm their match and thus validating the identification.

3.3 Preliminary screening of marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi using the plug assay method

The preliminary screening for antibacterial activity of endophytic and manglicolous fungi was carried out using a mycelial plug assay method as described by Hoskisson *et al.* (2001), Ezra *et al.* (2004) and Zainuddin *et al.* (2008).

Prior to the bioassay, the fungi isolates were cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) without antibiotic supplements for one week at 37°C. The test bacteria used comprised of both Gram positive and negative strains. The Gram positive bacteria used were, *Staphylococcus aureus* Rosenbach MTCC 96 (ATCC 9144), *Bacillus subtilis* (Ehrenberg) Cohn. (ATCC 6051), *Bacillus cereus* Frankland and Frankland (ATCC 11778), *Micrococcus luteus* (Schroeter) Cohn (ATCC 49732) and *Enterococcus faecalis* (Andrewes and Horder) Schleifer and Kilpper-Balz (ATCC 29212). The Gram negative bacteria used were *Escherichia coli* (Migula) Castellani & Chalmers MTCC 443 (ATCC 25922) and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Schroeter) Migula (ATCC 27853). The test bacteria were provided by the Microbiology Department, University of Malaya and were maintained on Luria Broth (LB) agar at 4°C.

To inoculate the test bacteria, a few colonies were picked using a sterile inoculation loop and transferred to a universal bottle containing Mueller Hinton broth (MHB) and shaken well. A bacterial suspension of each test bacteria was prepared according to the concentration of the 0.5 McFarland standard. The 0.5 McFarland standard was prepared by adding 0.5 ml of 1.174% (wt/vol) barium chloride dehydrate ($\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) solution to 99.5 ml of 1% (vol/vol) sulphuric acid. The absorbance of the 0.5 McFarland standard was checked using a spectrophotometer set at a wavelength of 625 nm. A sterile cotton swab was dipped into the adjusted test bacterial suspension and slightly pressed against the inside wall of the tube to remove excess fluid. This cotton

swab was then used to swab the entire surface of the LB agar. The agar plates were divided into four sections and 6 mm agar plugs was cut out from each section of the agar plate to form wells. A 6 mm plug of fungal mycelia was then taken from the edge of an actively growing fungal culture to replace the well in the agar plates inoculated with the test bacteria. The plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The diameter of the zone of inhibition was measured in millimetre (mm) and a zone of inhibition of 8 mm in diameter or higher is taken as a positive response (Zainuddin *et al.*, 2008). The experiment was conducted in triplicates. All preparative procedures of media are attached as Appendix 1.

3.4 Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi extracts

The marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi strains which demonstrated promising antibacterial activity in the plug assay was further investigation through the broth microdilution assay. This was done to obtain quantitative results from the qualitative results obtained from the plug assay, thus further asserting the antibacterial activity exhibited by these fungi strains.

3.4.1 Extraction of fungal secondary metabolites

The fungi isolates were grown on sterile PDA in Petri plates for 14-30 days at 25°C. Active growing fungi mycelium was then cut into 6 mm plugs and three of those mycelial plugs were added into conical 250 ml flasks containing potato dextrose broth (PDB) and the flasks were incubated at 25°C under shaken phase of 120 rpm for thirty days. After the incubation period, the fungal biomass was separated by filtration. The filtrate was then extracted with equal volumes of ethyl acetate (EA) (1:1). The organic EA layers were then combined and evaporated to dryness using a rotary evaporator at 25°C. The resulting crude obtained was weighed and stored at -20°C prior to use.

3.4.2 Preparation of p-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) and antibiotics

To prepare INT, 0.4 mg was dissolved in 1 ml of distilled water. As for antibiotics chloramphenicol and penicillin, 2.0 mg of powder was dissolved in 1 ml of distilled water with respect to each antibiotic. Both solutions were stored at -4°C prior to use. Preparative procedures of chemicals are attached as Appendix 1.

3.4.3 Preparation of bacterial suspension

The bacterial suspension was prepared according to the 0.5 McFarland standard. Firstly, three to five isolated colonies were taken from a pure 24-hour bacterial culture at 37°C on the MHA medium with a sterile inoculation loop and inoculated into a sterile Falcon tube containing 3 ml of MHB solution. The suspension was shaken well and the absorbance value was adjusted between 0.08-0.10 at 625 nm wavelength using a spectrophotometer. At this adjusted absorbance value, the bacterial concentration would be 1×10^8 cfu/ml similar to a 0.5 McFarland standard as mentioned in sub-chapter 3.3 above. The bacterial suspension was then diluted to 1×10^6 cfu/ml in order to achieve the final concentration of 5×10^5 cfu/ml after the addition of 50 μ l of bacterial suspension into the well.

3.4.4 Preparation of crude stock

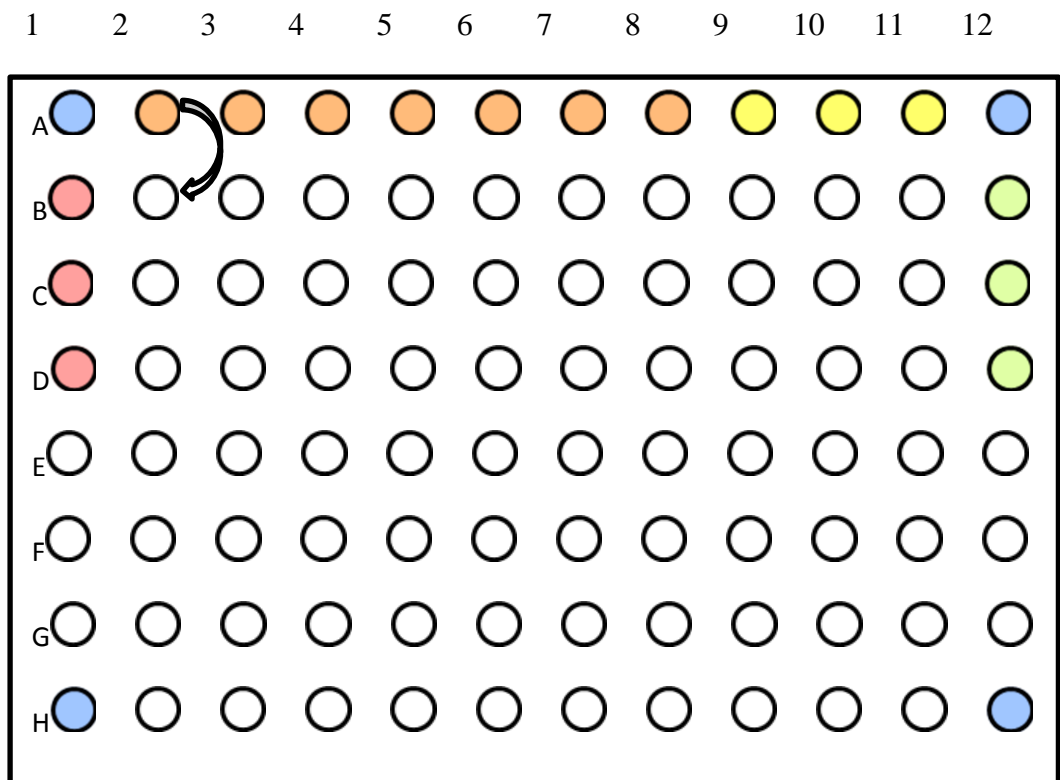
Forty milligrams of each extract was dissolved in 1% Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to obtain a concentration of 10 mg/ml of stock solution. The solution was sonicated to ensure homogeneity. The solution was then filtered using 0.45 μ m syringe filter into a sterile eppendorf tube and kept at -20°C.

3.4.5 Bioassay using broth microdilution method

A sterile 96-well plate was labelled under aseptic conditions as shown in Figure 3.2. Firstly, 100 μ l of Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) was added to the wells at each corner of the plate, labelled blue in Figure 3.2 to serve as sterility control. The wells labelled pink acted as growth control, containing 50 μ l MHB and 50 μ l bacteria. The wells labelled green acted as negative control, containing 75 μ l MHB and 25 μ l extract. Fifty millilitres of MHB was added to all the wells in column 2-11, and 50 μ l of different fungi extracts in 1% DMSO were pipetted into the first row of the 96 well plate

(Column 2-7). Two-fold serial dilutions were performed using a multichannel micropipette. Wells in columns 2 to 8 contained the same fungi extracts but with dilutions, 2.0, 1.0, 0.50, 0.25, 0.125, 0.063, 0.031 and 0.016 mg/ml while wells in column 9 to 11 contained 50 μ l of antibiotic with dilutions, 2.0, 1.0, 0.50, 0.25, 0.125, 0.063, 0.031 and 0.016 mg/ml. Finally 50 μ l of bacterial suspension (1×10^6 cfu/mL) was added to each tested wells and growth control to achieve a final concentration of 5×10^5 cfu/ml. The 96 well plates were put on the orbital shaker for 10 minutes and then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours.

After 24 hours, 20 μ l of INT were added into each of the wells, and placed on the orbital shaker for 10 minutes, and then incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. The changes in colour were then observed. The wells that remained colourless or clear meant that the extract was active against the bacteria while the wells that observed pink colour meant that there were bacteria present and thus indicating that the extract was inactive against the bacteria. The lowest concentration of the extract at which there was no colour changes in the well was taken as the MIC value. The assay was carried out in triplicates to ensure the accuracy of results.









-  Sterility control (100 μ l MHB)
-  Growth control (50 μ l MHB + 50 μ l bacterial suspension)
-  Negative control (25 μ l fungi extracts + 75 μ l MHB)
-  Positive control (50 μ l antibiotic + 50 μ l bacterial suspension)
-  50 μ l fungi extracts and 50 μ l MHB were added to first well then diluted 50 μ l from first well to second well and so on until the last well, 50 μ l of extracts were then discarded, after dilution, 50 μ l bacteria suspension was added.
-  Two-fold serial dilutions

Figure 3.2: Illustration of the 96 well plate used in broth microdilution assay

3.5 Chemical analysis of ethyl acetate crude extract (EAS) of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

3.5.1 Extraction of crude fungal extract for fractionation

The fungi, *S. rhizophorae* was grown in 3 L of PDB supplemented with 25 ppm of marine salt. The culture was incubated at a temperature of 25°C for 15 days at an agitation rate of 100 rpm. At the end of the incubation, the broth was filtered, separating the fungal mass and broth solution. The broth solution was partitioned with equal volumes of EA and the resulting organic layer was separated. The fungal mass was dried and extracted with EA at a ratio of 1g of dried fungal mass: 10 ml of EA. Both EA extracts from the broth solution and the dried fungal mass was pooled together and evaporated to dryness. The resulting dried EAS of *S. rhizophorae* was then stored at -4°C prior to use.

3.5.2 Solvent sequential extraction

The dried EAS of *S. rhizophorae* was partitioned by sequential extraction using solvents of increasing polarity starting with, *n*-hexane, dichloromethane and methanol. The dried EAS of *S. rhizophorae* was first soaked in *n*-hexane at a ratio of 1 g: 10 ml solvent and shaken in an orbital shaker for 7 hours. The solvent mixture was filtered using Whatman filter paper to separate the solution from undissolved solids and the resulting solution was evaporated to dryness. The remaining undissolved solids on the filter paper were then dried and soaked dichloromethane following the same procedure. This was repeated with the methanol. The last solvent methanol resulted in no undissolved solids. This partitioning procedure afforded a total of three fractions; *n*-hexane (HS), dichloromethane (DS) and methanol (MS) fractions.

3.5.3 Column chromatography

Column chromatography was carried out using silica gel (Merck 230-400 mesh ASTM). The ratio of the silica gel to sample loaded was approximately 30:1. The silica was made into a slurry using dichloromethane before packing into the glass column. The sizes of glass column used in the experiment were of various dimensions as it depended on the weight of crude extract and partially purified fractions. Antibacterial test on fractions HS, DS and MS showed that only two of the three fractions (HS and DS) displayed antibacterial activity. Therefore, bioassay-guided fractionation was carried out on fractions HS and DS. To obtain sub-fraction, HS fraction was dissolved in *n*-hexane and subjected to column chromatography using a gradient solvent system of 100% *n*-hexane, 90% *n*-hexane: 10% EA, 85: 15, 80: 20, 75: 25, 70: 30, 65: 35, 60: 40, 55: 45, 50: 50, 100% EA and 100% acetone. To obtain sub-fractions, DS fraction was dissolved in dichloromethane and was fractionated using a gradient solvent system of 100% dichloromethane, 95% dichloromethane: 5% EA, 90: 10, 85: 15, 80: 20, 75: 25, 70: 30, 65: 35, 60: 40, 55: 45, 50: 50, 100% EA and 100% acetone. Individual column fractions were combined according to their TLC profiles.

3.5.4 Preparative thin layer chromatography (TLC)

Preparative TLC was carried out on Merck 60 F₂₅₄ silica gel plates. Standard chromatograms of sub-fractions were prepared by applying a small drop of the sub-fraction to a silica gel TLC plate and developing it using different solvent systems, to improve separation under saturated conditions. Separated bands were detected by UV-light at 254nm and 365 nm. Upon optimization of the solvent system, the sub-fractions were further purified using the same solvent system. The purity of the compound isolated was confirmed by observing their respective NMR spectra.

3.5.5 Structure elucidation of the isolated secondary metabolite

3.5.5.1 Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR)

Structures were elucidated mainly using one and two dimensional Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) techniques and Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC/MS). NMR spectra of extracts and pure compounds were recorded using JEOL ECA 400 MHz and JEOL LA 400 MHz NMR spectrometers in chloroform D1 (CDCl₃) as a solvent and tetramethylsilane as internal standard. The observed chemical shifts (δ) values were recorded in ppm.

3.5.5.2 Liquid chromatography-mass spectroscopy (LCMS)

The Liquid chromatography-mass spectrum-Ion trap-Time of flight (LC-MS-IT-TOF) spectra were recorded on a Ultra-fast liquid chromatography (UFLC) Shimadzu Liquid Chromatograph with a SPD-M20A diode array detector coupled to a IT-TOF The IT-TOF was operated in positive ion electrospray mode.

3.5.5.3 Infra-red spectroscopy

Infrared light is the region of the electromagnetic spectrum with longer wavelength and lower frequency in comparison to visible light. Different molecules absorb specific frequencies of infrared light with respect to their structure thus this spectroscopic technique is used in the identification and study of chemicals. IR spectra were recorded using a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 400 FT-IR Spectrometer.

3.5.5.4 Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy

Ultraviolet-visible (UV) light is light in the visible and adjacent near-ultraviolet and near-infrared regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. UV spectroscopy is used in the determination and quantification of chemical based on their different absorption energies. UV-visible spectrum was recorded using a Shimadzu 1650 PC UV-Vis Spectrophotometer.

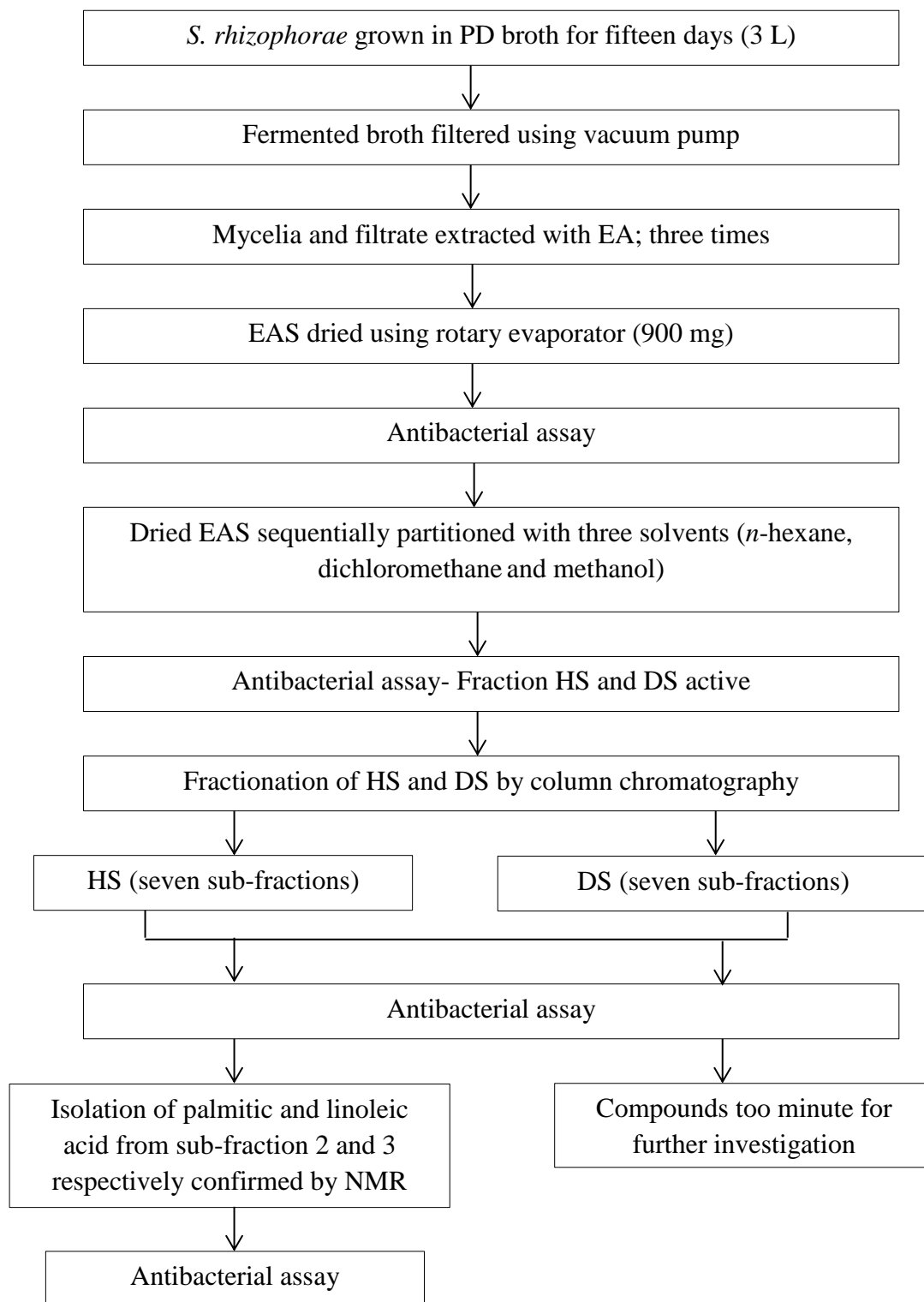


Figure 3.3: Schematic protocol of isolation of the bioactive metabolite by bioassay guided fractionation from *S. rhizophorae*

3.6 Chemicals, media & kits

The chemicals and media used in this study are listed in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: List of chemicals and media

Chemicals/Media	Manufacturer
Acetone	System Chem AR
Dichloromethane	System Chem AR
Ethyl acetate	System Chem AR
Methanol	System Chem AR
<i>n</i> -hexane	System Chem AR
p-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT)	R&M Marketing, Essex, U.K
Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA)	Oxoid LTD, Basingstoke
Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB)	Oxoid LTD, Basingstoke
Luria-Broth (LB) agar	Merck
Potato Dextrose agar (PDA)	Difco
Potato Dextrose broth (PDB)	Difco
Chloroform-D1	Merck
Silica gel 60	Merck
TLC Silica gel 60	Merck
Agarose	NextGene
TAE Buffer	Bio Basic Inc
Tris (hydroxymethyl) aminomethane hydrochloride	Merck
Ethylenedinitrilotetraacetic acid (EDTA)	Merck
PCR Master mix	QIAGEN
DNeasy® Plant Mini kit	QIAGEN

3.7 Instruments and Labware

The instruments and labware used in this study are listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: List of instruments and lab ware

Instruments/Lab ware	Manufacturer
Autoclave machine	TOMY
Beaker	GQ
Bunsen burner	CAMPINGAZ, Kolon International Corp, Korea
Conical flask	Bomex
Spectrophotometer	Eppendorf
Freezer	Fischer Scientific™
Refrigerator	WELTEX, Refrigeration & Equipment
Laminar flow hood	ESCO
Electronic balance	Sartorius
Rotary evaporator	BUCHI
Schott bottle	DURAN®
Measuring cylinder	NORMAX
Sterile swab	NA
Flat-bottom polystyrene 96 well plate	NUNC
Syringe	BD
Parafilm	PECHINEY Plastic Packaging, Chicago, IL
UV Illuminator	IL
UV Spectrophotometer	Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 400 FT-IR Spectrometer
IR Spectrometer	Shimadzu 1650 PC UV-Vis Spectrophotometer
Orbital shaker	WiseShake®, Wisd
Eppendorf tubes	Axygen® scientific
Membrane filter	Minisart® Sartorius
Micropipette	Transferpette®
Capillary tube	NA
TLC glass chamber	NA
Glass column	NA
Test tube	NA
Glass dropper	NA
Glass vial	NA
NMR tube	Schott Duran
NMR	JEOL (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) ECA 400 MHz
LCMS	Shimadzu
HR-ESI-MS	Thermo Instrument (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) LTQ XL/LTQ Orbitrap Discovery system
Fume Hood	Cole-Parmer

Table 3.3, continued

Instruments/lab ware	Manufacturer
Round bottom flask	BUCHI
Filter paper	Whatman®, Schleicher & Schuell
Centrifuge	Eppendorf
Vortex	LMS Co, LTD
Electrophoresis gel tank and adapter	CS
Water bath	WiseTherm, Wisd

NA: not applicable

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Endophytic fungi strains from marine associated plants

4.1.1 Endophytic fungi from *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae*

A total of 34 endophytic fungi were isolated from both marine associated plants including thirteen from *V. rotundifolia* and twenty-one strains from *I. pes-caprae*. The thirteen endophytic fungi strains identified from *V. rotundifolia* comprised of seven genera/species of fungi. Based on Table 4.1, six strains were identified to species level, while six were identified to genus level. The twenty-one strains from *I. pes-caprae*, were comprised of fifteen genera/species of fungi. Alignment of ITS DNA sequences are attached in Appendix 2. As shown in Table 4.1, five strains were identified to its species level while fifteen strains were identified to genus level. The photographs of selected endophytic fungi strains from isolated from *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae* are shown in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 respectively. Certain species/genera of endophytic fungi occurred in each plant whereby they were of the same species/genus but could be different strains as suggested by their differing GenBank accession numbers as shown in Table 4.1. Overlapping strains isolated from *V. rotundifolia* were *Cochliobolus eragrostidis* (two strains), *Curvularia* sp. (two strains), *Nemania primolutea* (two strains) and *Phoma* sp. (three strains). Overlapping strains from *I. pes-caprae* were *Bipolaris* sp. (four strains), *Dothideomycete* sp. (two strains) and *Phoma* sp. (two strains). Endophytic fungi strains such as *Phoma* sp. and *Guignardia mangiferae* appeared common to the two marine associated plants as they were isolated both from *V. rotundifolia* as well as *I. pes-caprae*.

Table 4.1: Putatively named endophytic fungi from the marine associated plants *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae*

Fungi	Plants			GenBank accession
	<i>V. rotundifolia</i>	GenBank accession	<i>I. pes-caprae</i>	
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	-		++++	GU017499.1 HQ631009.1 JX960589.1 JX949177.1
<i>Clasdosporium cladosporioides</i> (Fresen.) G.A. de Vries	-		+	EU497957.1
<i>Cochliobolus eragrostidis</i> (Tsuda & Ueyama) Sivan.	++	JN943412.1 JN943448.1	-	
<i>Cochliobolus lunatus</i> R.R. Nelson & F.A. Haasis	-		+	GQ169765.1
<i>Colletotrichum hippeastri</i> Yan L. Yang, Zuo Y. Liu, K.D. Hyde & L. Cai	-		+	JX010293.1
<i>Colletotrichum</i> sp.	-		+	JN390940.1
<i>Curvularia</i> sp.	++	GQ184733.1 HQ631061.1	-	
<i>Dothideomycete</i> sp.	-		++	HQ631008.1 JQ759890.1
Fungal endophyte sp g88	-		+	HM537063.1
Fungal sp. ARIZ B233	+	FJ612966.1	-	
<i>Fusarium equiseti</i> (Corda) Sacc.	-		+	EU595566.1
<i>Guignardia mangiferae</i> A.J. Roy	+	KC686598.1	+	EU273524.1
<i>Letendraea helminthicola</i> (Berk & Broome) Weese	+	JQ026217.1	-	
<i>Minimidochium</i> sp.	-		+	HQ630974.1
<i>Montagnulaceae</i> sp.	-		+	KC291642.1
<i>Myrothecium</i> sp.	-		+	HQ631067.1
<i>Nemania primolutea</i> Y.M. Ju, H.M. Hsieh & J.D. Rogers	++	EF026121.1 KC845930.1	-	
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	+	HQ631041.1	-	
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	-		+	JQ889696.1
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	+++	HQ630963.1 JN207285.1 JQ388280.1	++	HQ630963.1 JQ388280.1
<i>Pleosporales</i> sp.	-		+	HQ631015.1
<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	-		+	EF423534.1

“-“ = represents absence of strain

“+” = represents presence and number of strains

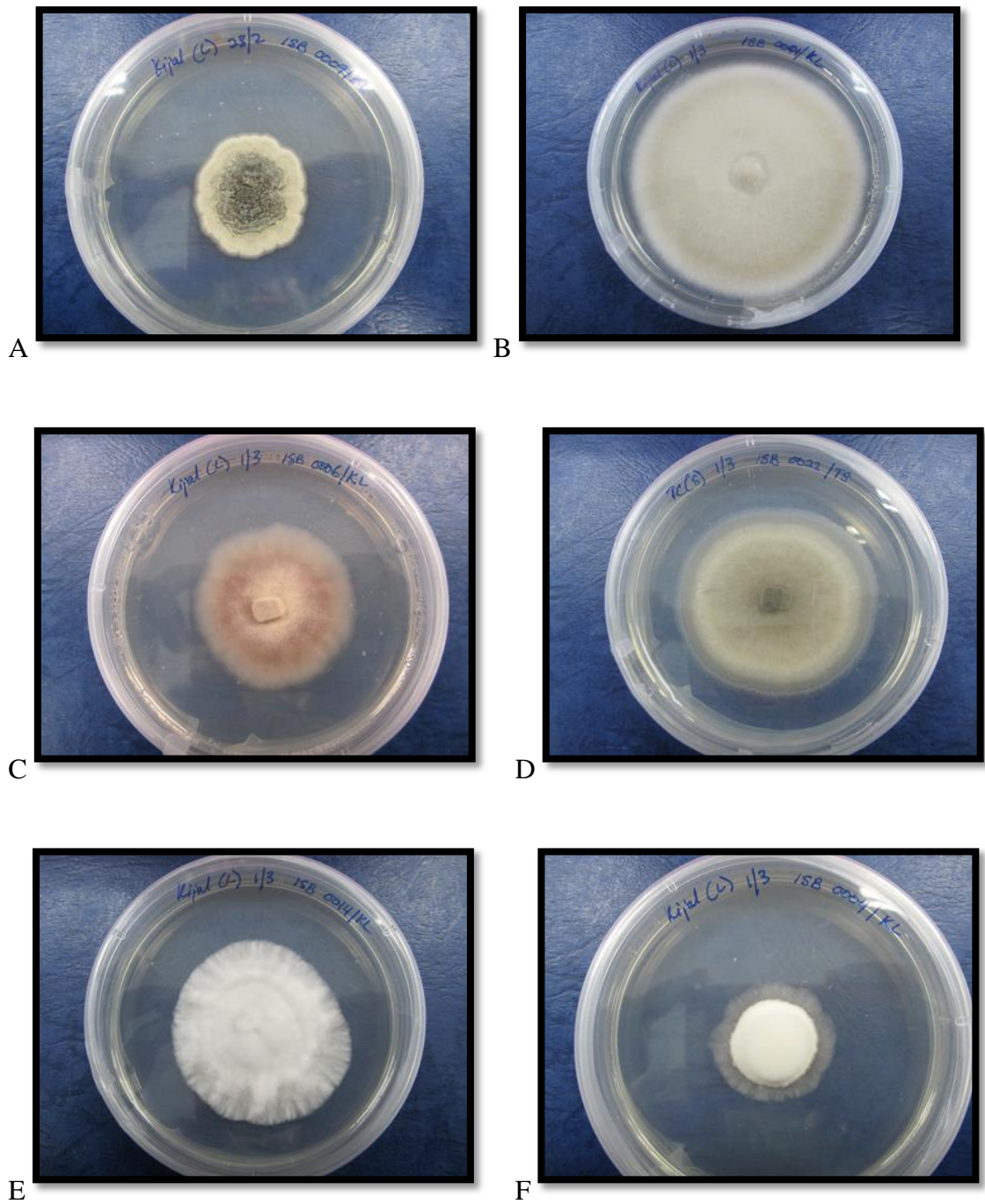


Figure 4.1: Photographs of selected endophytic fungi isolated from *V. rotundifolia* on PDA. A: *G. mangiferae*; B: *Phoma* sp.; C: *L. helminthicola*; D: *C. eragrostidis*; E: *Paecilomyces* sp.; F: Fungal sp. ARIZ B233

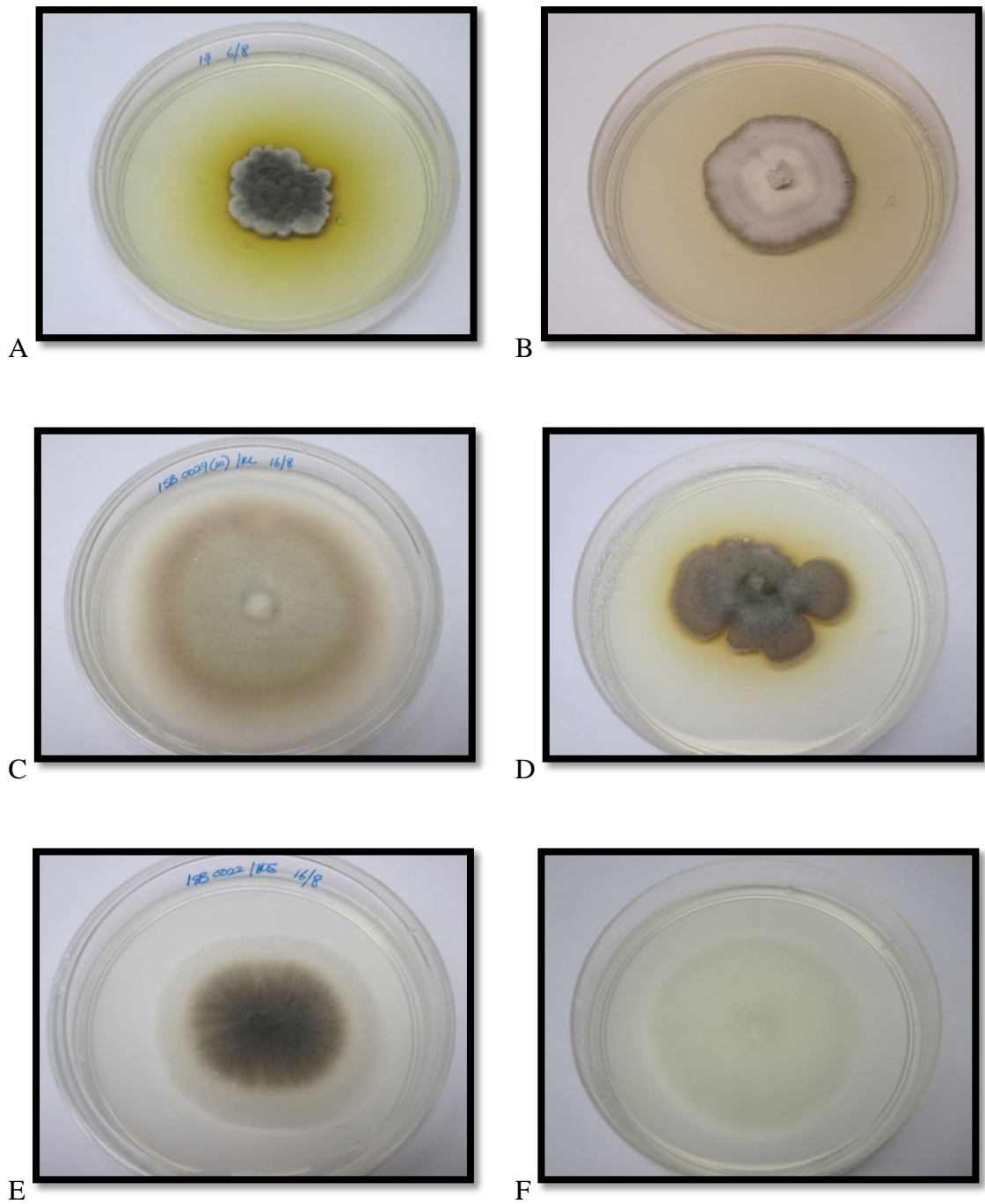


Figure 4.2: Photographs of selected endophytic fungi isolated from *I. pes-caprae* on PDA. A: *C. cladosporioides*; B: *Dothideomycete* sp.; C: *Phoma* sp.; D: *Bipolaris* sp.; E: *F. equiseti*; F: *Colletotrichum* sp.

4.2 Antibacterial activity of marine derived fungi based on plug assay

4.2.1 Antibacterial activity of endophytic fungi from *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae*

Table 4.2 shows the results obtained from the antibacterial activity screening of the 34 endophytic fungi using the plug assay method. As shown in Table 4.2, five of the thirteen isolated endophytic fungi strains from *V. rotundifolia* displayed antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria while ten of the twenty-one isolated endophytic fungi strains from *I. pes-caprae* displayed antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria. Results obtained showed that eight and eleven fungi strains from *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae* respectively did not exhibit antibacterial activity against any of the test bacteria. The endophytes from *V. rotundifolia* displayed selective antibacterial activity towards only Gram positive bacteria namely; *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus cereus* and *Bacillus subtilis*. Two fungi strains exhibited antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, five strains against *B. cereus* and four strains against *B. subtilis*. The fungi strains from *V. rotundifolia* which displayed the broadest spectrum of antibacterial activity which was against three test bacteria were; *Paecilomyces* sp. and *Curvularia* sp.

As for the endophytic fungi strains from *I. pes-caprae*, eight of fungi strains exhibited antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, seven against *B. cereus*, six against *B. subtilis*, eight against *Micrococcus lutes*, one against *Enterococcus faecalis*, three against *Escherichia coli*, and one against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. The broadest spectrum of antibacterial activity was exhibited by *Bipolaris* sp. (HQ631009.1) which was against six out of the seven test bacteria comprising of both Gram positive and negative test bacteria. Although most of the endophytic fungi strains from *I. pes-caprae* displayed antibacterial activity against Gram positive bacteria, some of the fungi strains

were potent against Gram negative bacteria such as; *Dothideomycete* sp. (HQ631008.1) exhibited antibacterial activity against *P. aeruginosa* and fungi strains *Minimidochium* sp., *Bipolaris* sp. (HQ631009.1), and *Penicillium* sp. exhibited antibacterial activity against *E. coli*. A sample of the zones on inhibition demonstrated by the fungi through the plug assay is shown in Figure 4.3. The diameter of zones of inhibition values are attached as Appendix 3.

Table 4.2: Preliminary antibacterial activities of endophytic fungi from the marine associated plant *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae* against seven bacterial strains

Fungi	<i>V. rotundifolia</i>		<i>I. pes-caprae</i>	
	GenBank accession number	Activity	GenBank accession number	Activity
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	-	-	GU017499.1 HQ631009.1	NA SA(G), BC(G), BS(M), EF(G), ML(G), EC(W)
			JX960589.1 JX949177.1	NA BS(M), ML(G)
<i>C. cladosporioides</i>	-	-	EU497957.1	NA
<i>C. eragrostidis</i>	JN943412.1 JN943448.1	NA BC(G), BS(G)	-	-
<i>C. lunatus</i>	-	-	GQ169765.1	NA
<i>C. hippeastri</i>	-	-	JX010293.1	NA
<i>Colletotrichum</i> sp.	-	-	JN390940.1	NA
<i>Curvularia</i> sp.	GQ184733.1 HQ631061.1	SA(G), BC(G), BS(G) NA	-	-
<i>Dothideomycete</i> sp.	-	-	HQ631008.1	SA(M), BC(M), ML(M), PA(W)
			JQ759890.1	NA
Fungal endophyte sp g88	-	-	HM537063.1	NA
Fungal sp. ARIZ	FJ612966.1	NA	-	-
<i>F. equiseti</i>	-	-	EU595566.1	SA(G), BC(G), BS(G), ML(G)
<i>G. mangiferae</i>	KC686598.1	BC(G), BS(G)	EU273524.1	NA

Table 4.2, continued

<i>L. helminthicola</i>	JQ026217.1	NA	-	-
<i>Minimidochium</i> sp.	-	-	HQ630974.1	SA(W), BC(W), BS(W), ML(M), EC(W)
<i>Montagnulaceae</i> sp.	-	-	KC291642.1	SA(G), BC(G), BS(G), ML(G)
<i>Myrothecium</i> sp.	-	-	HQ631067.1	SA(W), BC(W), BS(W)
<i>N. primolutea</i>	EF026121.1	NA	-	-
	KC845930.1	NA		
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	HQ631041.1	SA(G), BC(G), BS(G)	-	-
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	-	-	JQ889696.1	SA(W), BC(W), EC(W)
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	HQ630963.1	NA	HQ630963.1	ML(W)
	JN207285.1	BC(W)	JQ388280.1	SA(M), ML(M)
	JQ388280.1	NA		
<i>Pleosporales</i> sp.	-	-	HQ631015.1	NA
<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	-	-	EF423534.1	NA

NA: No activity towards any test bacteria

SA: *Staphylococcus aureus*; BC: *Bacillus cereus*; BS: *Bacillus subtilis*; EF: *Enterococcus faecalis*; ML: *Micrococcus luteus*; EC: *Escherichia coli*; PA: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

(W): Weak activity; (M): Moderate activity; (G): Good activity

Activities were classified as: 8 mm to 9 mm: weak activity; 10 mm to 11 mm: moderate activity; > 11 mm: good activity

The diameter of plug well: 6 mm

Experiment carried out in triplicates

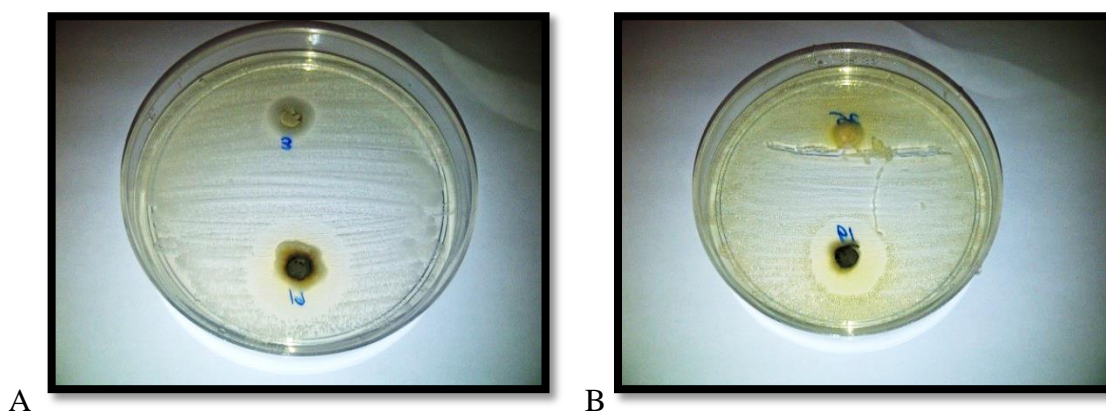


Figure 4.3: Photographs of inhibition zone in plug assay. A: Zone inhibition of antibacterial activities of *Bipolaris* sp. and *Montagnulaceae* sp. B: Zone inhibition of antibacterial activities of *Phoma* sp. and *Paecilomyces* sp.

4.2.2 Antibacterial activity of manglicolous fungi

Table 4.3 shows the preliminary antibacterial activities exhibited by the manglicolous fungi in the present study when assessed through the plug assay method. Out of the total eleven fungi strains, ten displayed antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria. Only *Fusarium* sp. did not exhibit antibacterial activity towards any of the test bacteria. Certain manglicolous fungi used in the present investigation belonged to the same species but are different strains because they were isolated from different locations, such as the fungi strains; *Dactylospora haliotrepha* (4 strains) and *Verruculina enalia* (two strains) fungi strains. *Staphylococcus aureus* was the test bacteria most susceptible to the antibacterial potential of the manglicolous fungi with nine out of eleven manglicolous fungi exhibiting antibacterial activities against this bacterium. Most of the antibacterial activity displayed by the manglicolous fungi in this study was skewed towards Gram positive bacteria with only one manglicolous fungi, *S. rhizophorae* active against the Gram negative *E. coli*. The test bacteria most susceptible to the antibacterial potential of *S. rhizophorae* displayed promising potential with antibacterial activity against five test bacteria.

Table 4.3: Preliminary antibacterial activity of manglicolous fungi against seven test bacteria

Fungi	Bacterial strains tested						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>
<i>Corollospora maritima</i>	NA	M	M	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB001)	M	NA	M	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB002)	M	NA	M	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB003)	G	G	G	M	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB004)	G	G	G	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Fusarium</i> sp.	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Henningsomyces</i> sp.	G	G	G	M	NA	NA	NA
MF 28	G	G	G	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>S. rhizophorae</i>	G	G	G	G	NA	W	NA
<i>V. enalia</i> (ISB005)	M	G	G	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>V. enalia</i> (ISB006)	M	G	M	NA	NA	NA	NA

NA: No activity; (W): Weak activity; (M): Moderate activity; (G): Good activity

Activities were classified as: 8 mm to 9 mm: weak activity; 10 mm to 11 mm: moderate activity; > 11 mm: good activity

The diameter of plug well: 6 mm

Experiment carried out in triplicates

4.3 Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of marine derived fungi crude extracts obtained through broth microdilution assay

4.3.1 MIC values of endophytic fungi crude extracts

The five most promising endophytic fungi strains; *Minimidochium* sp., *Paecilomyces* sp., *Curvularia* sp. (GQ184733.1), *Montagnulaceae* sp. (KC291642.1) and *Bipolaris* sp. (HQ631009.1) were selected for further antibacterial assessment through the broth microdilution assay. As shown in Table 4.4, most of the fungi extracts inhibited the growth of Gram positive bacteria. None of the five fungi extracts were potent against *P. aeruginosa* while *B. cereus* was the only bacterial strain susceptible to the antibacterial activities of all of the five extracts. The extract of *Paecilomyces* sp. showed promising antibacterial potential with low MIC values of 0.250 mg/ml and below against five of the test bacteria. On the other hand, the extract of *Bipolaris* sp. was the only one to exhibit good antibacterial activity against *E. coli* with a low MIC of at 0.250 mg/ml in comparison to *Montagnulaceae* sp.

Table 4.4: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of endophytic fungi crude extracts in mg/ml

Endophytic Fungi	Bacteria						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
<i>Minimidochium</i> sp.	2.000±0	1.000±0	1.000±0	2.000±0	1.000±0	NA	NA
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	0.125±0	0.063±0	0.125±0	0.250±0	0.250±0	NA	NA
<i>Curvularia</i> sp. (GQ184733.1)	NA	2.000±0	1.000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Montagnulaceae</i> sp. (KC291642.1)	2.000±0	0.500±0	NA	NA	1.000±0	NA	1.000±0
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp. (HQ631009.1)	0.500±0	0.250±0	NA	NA	0.500±0	NA	0.250±0

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

4.3.2 MIC values of manglicolous fungi crude extracts

The MIC values of manglicolous fungi crude extracts were determined using the broth microdilution assay method (Figure 4.4) and results obtained are shown in Table 4.5. All the ten selected manglicolous fungi displayed antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria. From the results, most of the fungi displayed antibacterial activity against Gram positive bacteria. The fungi strains potent against Gram negative bacteria were *S. rhizophorae* and the unidentified fungi strain, MF28 which displayed activity against *E. coli*.

There were four strains of *D. haliotrepha* that were investigated in this study. According to the results obtained, the fungi strains ISB001 and ISB002 possessed similar activities whereby both exhibited antibacterial activity against the bacteria *S. aureus* and *B. cereus*. Among all four strains, the *D. haliotrepha* strain ISB003 exhibited the widest range of antibacterial activity which was against four of the seven test bacteria namely; *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis* and *M. luteus*. The *D. haliotrepha* strain ISB004 displayed an MIC value of 1.0 mg/ml against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus* and *Bacillus subtilis*. There were two strains of the fungi *V. enalia* that were investigated in the present study. Both fungi strains displayed similar antibacterial activities, being effective against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus* and *B. subtilis* at an MIC value of 1.0 mg/ml.

The fungi strain *S. rhizophorae* was chosen for further investigation and chemical analysis because it was the only manglicolous fungi that exhibited the broadest spectrum of antibacterial activity against five out of the seven test bacteria comprising of four Gram positive bacteria; *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis*, *M. luteus* and 1 Gram negative bacteria namely *E. coli*. In addition, the crude extract (EAS) of *S. rhizophorae* exhibited MIC values of 0.500 mg/ml and lower against test bacteria inhibited by its actions. Although crude extracts from fungi such as, *Henningsomyces* sp. and *D.*

haliotrepha (ISB003) also exhibited low MIC values, proving to possess promising potential, none of these fungal crude extracts were active against Gram negative bacteria, which is why *S. rhizophorae* was chosen for further analysis. Although the crude extract of MF 28 also exhibited antibacterial activity against *E. coli*, its MIC value was higher (less potent) in comparison to the MIC value of the crude extract of *S. rhizophorae*.

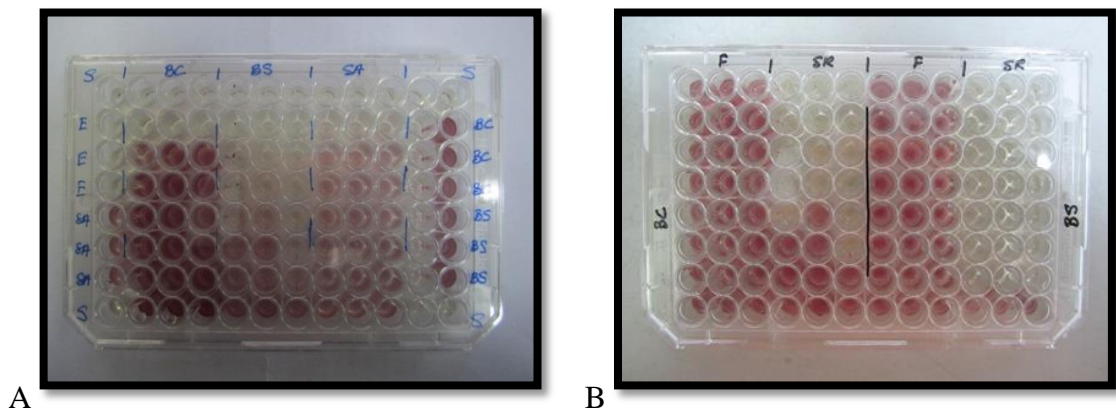


Figure 4.4: Photographs of colour changes indicating MIC values in broth microdilution assay. A: MIC of MF28 extract, B: MIC of *S. rhizophorae* extract

Table 4.5: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of manglicolous fungi crude extracts in mg/ml

Manglicolous Fungi	Bacteria						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
<i>S. rhizophorae</i>	0.5000±0	0.2500±0	0.0521±0.02	NA	0.5000±0	NA	0.5000±0
MF 28	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	0.2500±0	NA	NA	NA	2.0000±0
<i>Henningsomyces</i> sp.	0.2500±0	1.0000±0	0.4167±0.15	NA	1.0000±0	NA	NA
<i>C. maritima</i>	NA	0.2500±0	0.2500±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB001)	0.5000±0	NA	1.0000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB002)	0.5000±0	NA	1.0000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB003)	0.1250±0	0.1250±0	0.0625±0	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA
<i>D. haliotrepha</i> (ISB004)	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>V. enalia</i> (ISB005)	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>V. enalia</i> (ISB006)	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	1.0000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

4.4 Sub-fractions from ethyl acetate crude extract (EAS) of *Saccardoella rhizophorae* obtained through bioassay guided fractionation

4.4.1 EAS of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

A total weight of 900 mg of crude EA extract (EAS) were obtained from the larger extraction scale of, 3 L of *S. rhizophorae* (Figure 4.5) fermentation broth partitioned with equal volumes of EA. The dried EAS obtained was dark brownish in colouration.



Figure 4.5: Photograph of 15 day old *S. rhizophorae* cultured on PDA media

4.4.2 Fractions of EAS

Three fractions were obtained through solvent partitioning using three solvents in order of increasing polarity from EAS of *S. rhizophorae*, affording fractions, HS, DS, and MS. The weight and colour of each fraction are shown in Table 4.6. The fraction with the highest weight was the DS fraction with a total weight of 320 mg while the other two fractions had lower weight in comparison with 235 mg and 110 mg from the MS and HS fractions respectively.

Table 4.6: Colour and dry weight of HS, DS and MS fractions

Fungi	Fraction	Colour of fraction	Dry weight of fraction (mg)
<i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	HS	Yellow	110
	DS	Dark brown	320
	MS	Brownish black	235

4.4.3 Column chromatography fractionation of HS and DS fractions

4.4.3.1 Sub-fractions of HS fraction

Column fractionation of the HS fraction obtained from the solvent partitioning afforded 43 fractions. The 43 fractions obtained were further pooled into seven sub-fractions based on the similarity of the TLC profiles for each fraction. The weight and appearance of the sub-fractions obtained are shown in Table 4.7.1. Sub-fractions 2, 3 and 4 had significantly higher weights at, 51.1 mg, 24.5 mg and 20.3 mg respectively in comparison to the other 4 sub-fractions. Sub-fraction 1 had the lowest weight at 5 mg.

Table 4.7.1: Weight and appearance of sub-fractions from HS fraction

Sub-fraction	Weight (mg)	Appearance
1	5	Oily, light greenish yellow
2	51.1	Oily, light orange brown
3	24.5	Oily, light greenish
4	20.3	Oily, light yellow
5	5.5	Oily, almost colorless
6	5.6	Oily, very light yellow
7	7.9	Oily, medium brown

4.4.3.2 Sub-fractions of DS fraction

Column fractionation of the DS fraction obtained from the solvent partitioning, afforded 70 fractions in total. The 70 fractions obtained were further pooled into seven sub-fractions based on the similarity of the TLC profiles for each fraction. The weight and appearance of the sub-fractions obtained are displayed in Table 4.7.2. Sub-fractions 4, 5 and 7 had the highest weight at 92.1 mg, 76.2 mg and 47.2 mg respectively. The other sub-fractions had considerably lower weight in comparison.

Table 4.7.2: Weight and appearance of sub-fractions from DS fraction

Sub-fraction	Weight (mg)	Appearance
1	20.1	Light yellowish
2	10.9	Light brownish
3	12.1	Light brownish
4	92.1	Dark brown
5	76.2	Dark brown
6	10.2	Blackish
7	47.2	Blackish

4.5 Antibacterial activity of *Saccardoella rhizophorae* extracts

4.5.1 MIC values of solvent partition fractions

The MIC values of the three fractions obtained from the solvent partitioning extraction are shown in Table 4.8. Out of the three fractions, the HS fraction exhibited the most promising antibacterial activity against six out of seven test bacteria, comprising of both Gram positive and negative namely; *S. aureus*, *Bacillus cereus*, *B. subtilis*, *E. faecalis*, *M. luteus* and *E. coli*. The DS fraction exhibited antibacterial activity against five out of the seven test bacteria all of which comprised of Gram positive bacteria. The MS fraction displayed no antibacterial activity towards any of the test bacteria in this study. From the results obtained, the DS fraction had lower MIC values towards the bacteria against which they exhibited antibacterial activity whereby all MIC values recorded were 0.125 mg/ml and below.

Table 4.8: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of HS, DS and MS fractions in mg/ml

Bacteria	Fractions		
	HS	DS	MS
<i>S. aureus</i>	2.0000±0	0.1250±0	NA
<i>B. cereus</i>	0.2500±0	0.0313±0	NA
<i>B. subtilis</i>	0.1250±0	0.0156±0	NA
<i>E. faecalis</i>	1.0000±0	0.1250±0	NA
<i>M. luteus</i>	0.5000±0	0.0625±0	NA
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	NA	NA	NA
<i>E. coli</i>	2.0000±0	NA	NA

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

4.5.2 MIC values of the sub-fractions from the HS fraction

The MIC values of the sub-fractions from the HS fraction are shown in Table 4.8.1. The sub-fractions that displayed antibacterial activity towards the most number of bacterial strains were sub-fractions 2, 3 and 7, all of which exhibited antibacterial activity against

at least three of the seven test bacteria. Sub-fraction 2 exhibited antibacterial activity against *B. cereus*, *E. faecalis* and *M. luteus*. Sub-fraction 3 exhibited antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus* and *B. subtilis* while sub-fraction 7 exhibited antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus* and *E. faecalis*. The other 4 sub-fractions exhibited activity against two or less test bacteria with sub-fraction 1, 4 and 6 effective against only one test bacteria. Sub-fraction 1 exhibited antibacterial activity against *E. faecalis*, while sub-fractions 4 and 6 exhibited antibacterial activity against *B. cereus*. The bacterium most susceptible to the action of the sub-fractions from HS fraction was *B. cereus* whereby, all the sub-fractions except sub-fraction 1 were active against this bacterium. Sub-fractions 1, 2 and 7 were active against *E. faecalis* while sub-fractions 3 and 7 were active against *S. aureus* and sub-fractions 3 and 5 displayed activity against *B. subtilis*. Only sub-fraction 2 exhibited antibacterial activity against *M. luteus*. None of the 7 sub-fractions possessed antibacterial activity against the Gram negative test bacteria namely, *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*. Although sub-fraction 7 exhibited the lowest MIC values in comparison to the remaining six sub-fractions, the constituents in sub-fraction 7 could not be further elucidated due its low quantity as previously stated in Table 4.7.1. All the MIC values recorded by the sub-fractions of HS fraction were 0.5 mg/ml and below.

4.5.3 MIC values of the sub-fractions from the DS fraction

The MIC values of the sub-fractions of the DS fraction are shown in Table 4.8.2. The sub-fractions from the DS fraction exhibited antibacterial activity only towards the Gram positive test bacteria with no activity exhibited against *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* including the Gram positive *E. faecalis*. Out of the seven sub-fractions obtained from further fractionation of the DS fraction, sub-fractions 4 and 5 displayed antibacterial activity against the most number of test bacteria whereby these two sub-fractions were

active against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis* and *M. luteus*. Based on results obtained, the bacterium *M. luteus* was the most susceptible towards the actions of the sub-fractions of DS fraction whereby five out of the seven sub-fractions were active against this bacterium. However due to minute amounts of the sub-fractions of DS fraction no further chemical analysis was possible. This may be undertaken in future studies.

Table 4.8.1: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of sub-fractions of HS fraction in mg/ml

Sub-fraction	Bacteria						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
1	NA	NA	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA	NA
2	NA	0.2500±0	NA	0.2500±0	0.5000±0	NA	NA
3	0.5000±0	0.2500±0	0.2500±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
4	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
5	NA	0.5000±0	0.5000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
6	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
7	0.2500±0	0.0313±0	NA	0.0625±0	NA	NA	NA

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

Table 4.8.2: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of sub-fractions of DS fraction in mg/ml

Sub-fraction	Bacteria						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
1	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.2500±0	NA	NA
2	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA
3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4	0.5000±0	0.5000±0	0.1250±0	NA	0.5000±0	NA	NA
5	0.2500±0	0.2500±0	0.0625±0	NA	0.2500±0	NA	NA
6	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.2500±0	NA	NA
7	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

4.5.4 MIC values of metabolites from Saccardoella rhizophorae

Sub-fractions 2 and 3 from the HS fraction were chosen for further chemical analysis based on their promising antibacterial potential against the most number of test bacteria as well as their low MIC values of not more than 0.500 mg/ml. Linoleic acid was isolated from sub-fraction 2 while palmitic acid was isolated from sub-fraction 3 of the HS fraction. The MIC values of the metabolites from *S. rhizophorae*; linoleic acid and palmitic acid are shown in Table 4.9. Comparing the MIC values of the linoleic acid in relation to the pool from which it was isolated from, the sub-fraction 2 of the HS fraction was active against *B. cereus*, *E. faecalis* and *M. luteus* however, linoleic acid exhibited antibacterial activity towards *S. aureus* and *B. subtilis*. As for palmitic acid which was isolated from sub-fraction 3 of the HS fraction, the pure compound palmitic acid displayed similar antibacterial activity with the sub-fraction from which it was isolated from except the additional exhibition of antibacterial activity against *M. luteus* which was not in sync with its sub-fraction. Both linoleic and palmitic acid, exhibited selected antibacterial activity directed towards only the Gram positive test bacteria. Overall, both linoleic and palmitic acid did not exhibit excellent antibacterial against the test bacteria activity in comparison to the standard antibiotics used in this study, with the lowest MIC at 0.250 mg/ml and highest at 1.000 mg/ml.

Table 4.9: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of pure compounds in mg/ml

Metabolites	Bacteria						
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>M. luteus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
Palmitic acid	0.500±0	0.250±0	0.250±0	NA	0.500±0	NA	NA
Linoleic acid	1.000±0	NA	0.500±0	NA	NA	NA	NA
Penicillin	0.004±0	0.063±0	0.063±0	0.500±0	0.125±0	0.500±0	0.125±0
Chloramphenicol	0.031±0	0.016±0	0.016±0	0.500±0	0.016±0	0.125±0	0.008±0

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; NA: no activity

4.6 NMR spectroscopic data of metabolites from *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

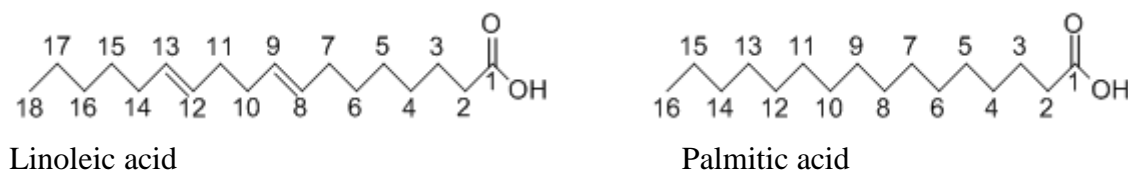


Figure 4.6: Structure of linoleic acid and palmitic acid

Linoleic acid, also known as *cis*-9, *cis*-12-octadecadenoic acid was isolated from sub-fraction 2 of the HS fraction while, palmitic acid, or *n*-hexadecanoic acid was isolated from sub-fraction 3 of the HS fraction. Palmitic acid was isolated as light yellowish powder while linoleic acid was isolated as light yellowish oil. Linoleic acid is a known polyunsaturated fatty acid while palmitic acid is a known saturated fatty acid. Figures 3.6 shows the structure of linoleic acid and palmitic acid after determination using ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectra that were recorded in deuterated chloroform (CDCl_3) using FT-NMR Lambda 400 MHz and mass spectrum on HP 6890 Series Mass Selective Detector. The molecular formula of linoleic acid and palmitic acid was obtained as $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_2$ and $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_2$ respectively. The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR 400Hz data for linoleic acid are tabulated in Table 4.10 while Table 4.11 shows the ^1H and ^{13}C NMR 400Hz data for palmitic acid. The ^1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR spectrums for linoleic acid are displayed in Figure 4.7a and 3.7b respectively. The 2-dimensional NMR spectrums for linoleic acid are attached as Appendix 4. As for palmitic acid, the ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectrums are displayed in Figure 4.8a and 3.8b respectively. The 2-dimensional NMR spectrums for palmitic acid are attached as Appendix 5.

Table 4.10: The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR 400Hz data of linoleic acid

Position	$\delta\text{H}^{\text{a}}$	δC
1		180.7
2	2.35 <i>t</i> (7.8)	34.3
3	1.64 <i>m</i>	24.8
4	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	29.2 ^c
5	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	29.3 ^c
6	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	29.3 ^c
7	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	29.5 ^c
8	2.04-2.09 <i>m</i> ^b	27.4 ^d
9	5.30-5.42 <i>m</i> ^b	130.2 ^f
10	5.30-5.42 <i>m</i> ^b	128.1 ^g
11	2.78 <i>t</i> (6.0)	25.8
12	5.30-5.42 <i>m</i> ^b	128.3 ^g
13	5.30-5.42 <i>m</i> ^b	130.4 ^f
14	2.04-2.09 <i>m</i> ^b	27.3 ^d
15	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	29.8 ^c
16	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	22.8 ^c
17	1.31-1.38 <i>m</i> ^b	31.7 ^c
18	0.90 <i>t</i> (7.3)	14.1

^aCoupling constants (J) in Hz are indicated in parentheses

^bOverlapping signals

^{c,d,e,f,g}Chemical shifts are interchangeable

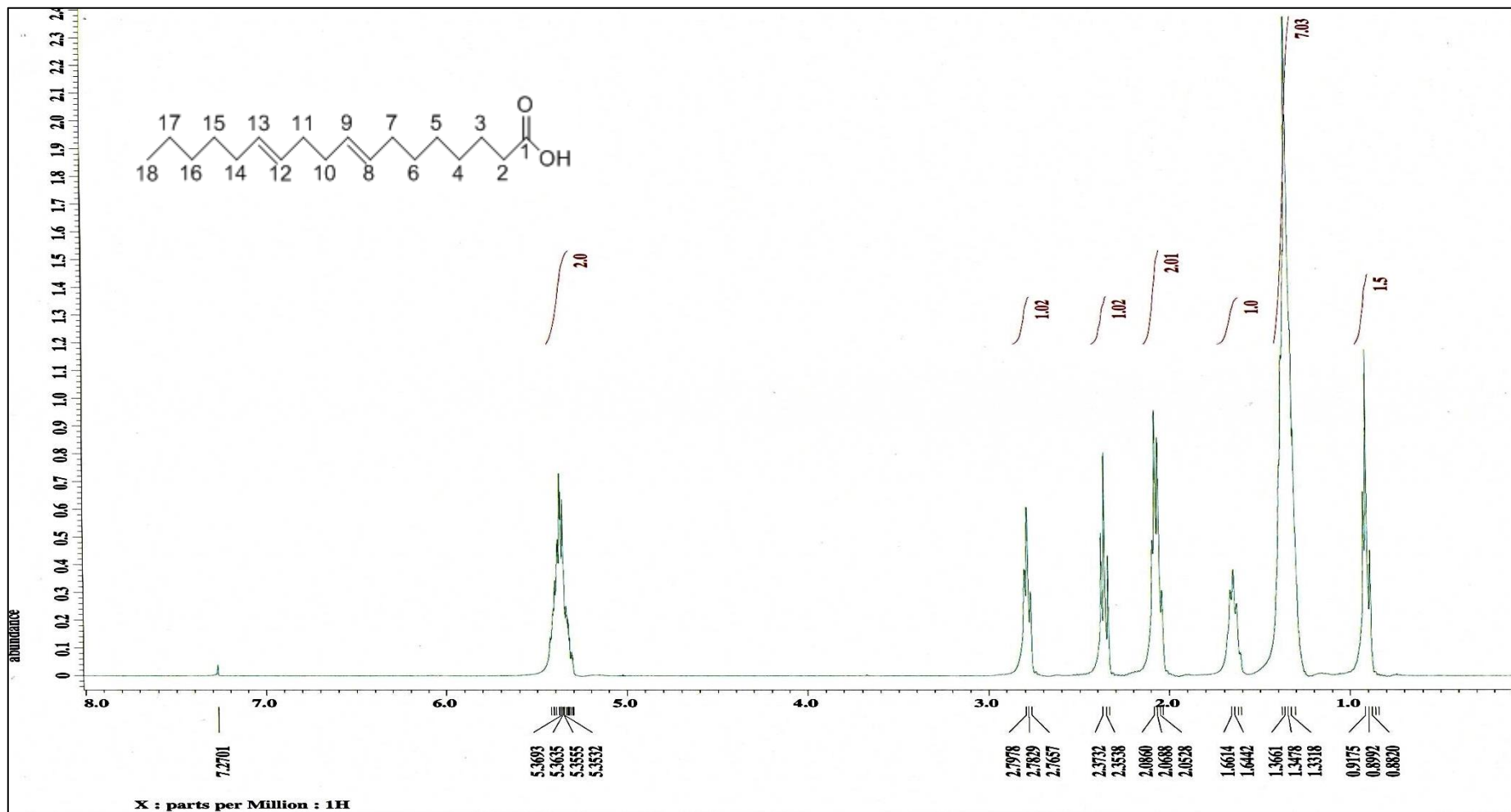


Figure 4.7a: The ^1H NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm)

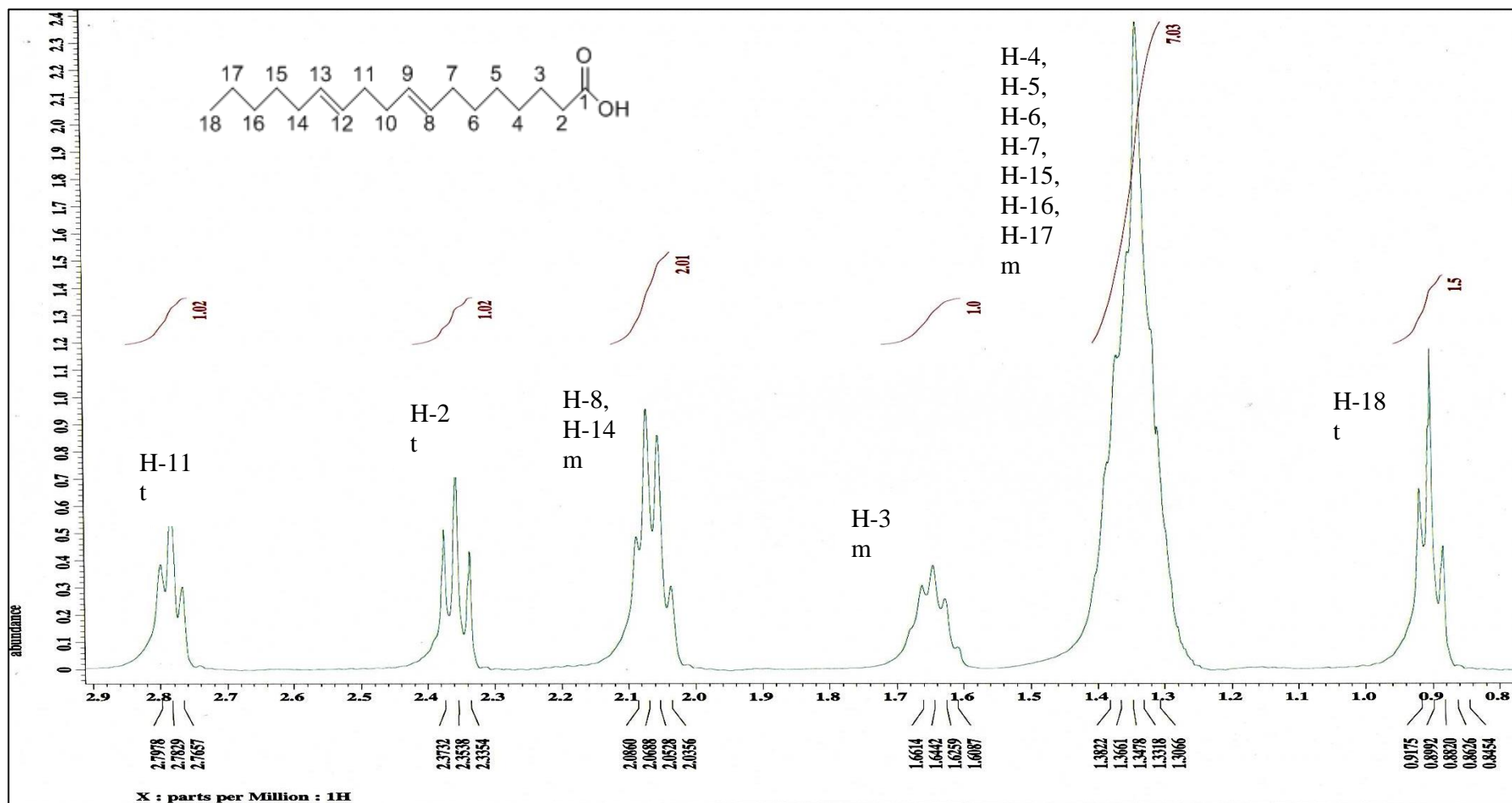


Figure 4.7a: The ^1H NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm) (continued)

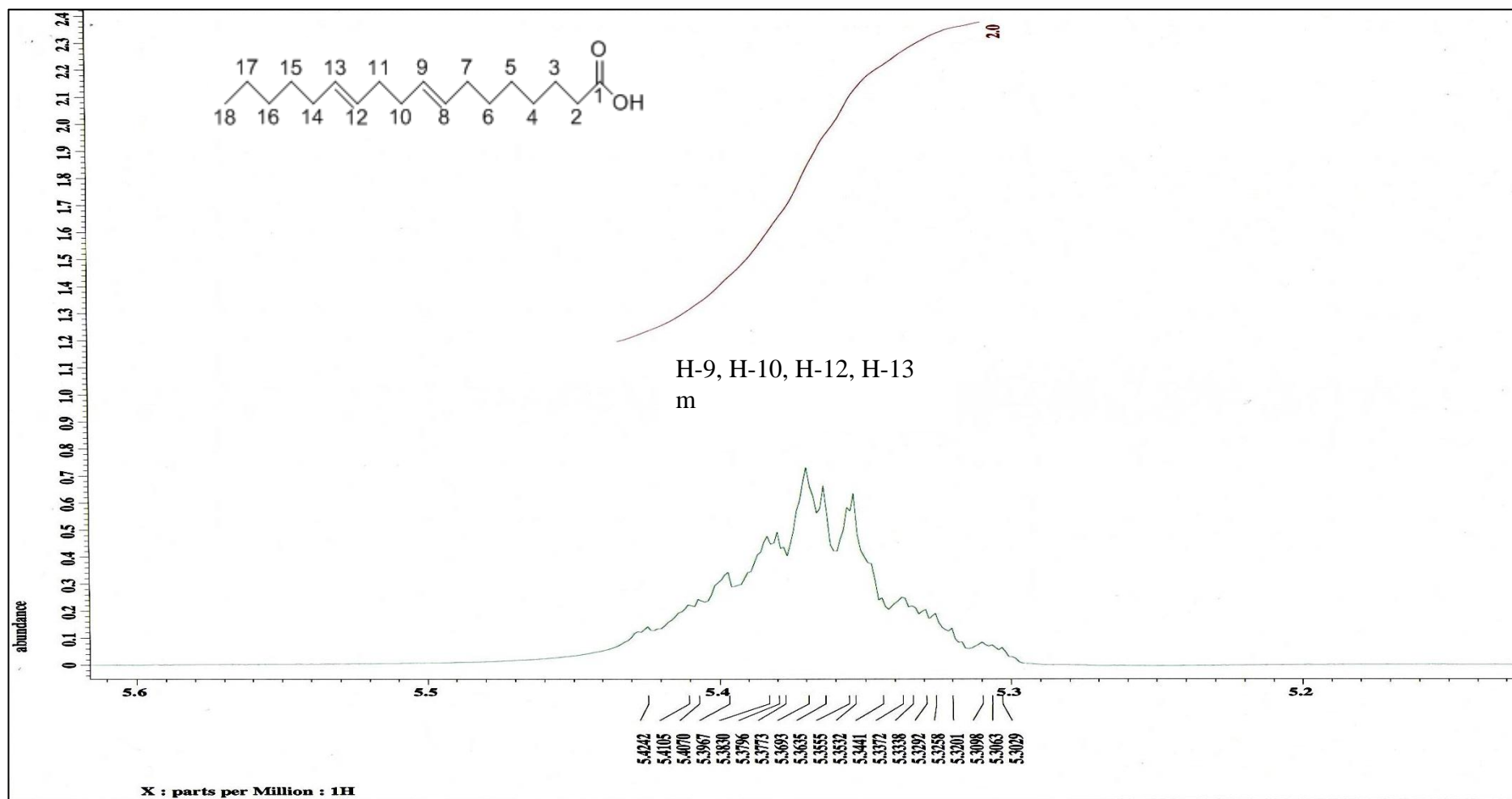


Figure 4.7a: The ^1H NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm) (continued)

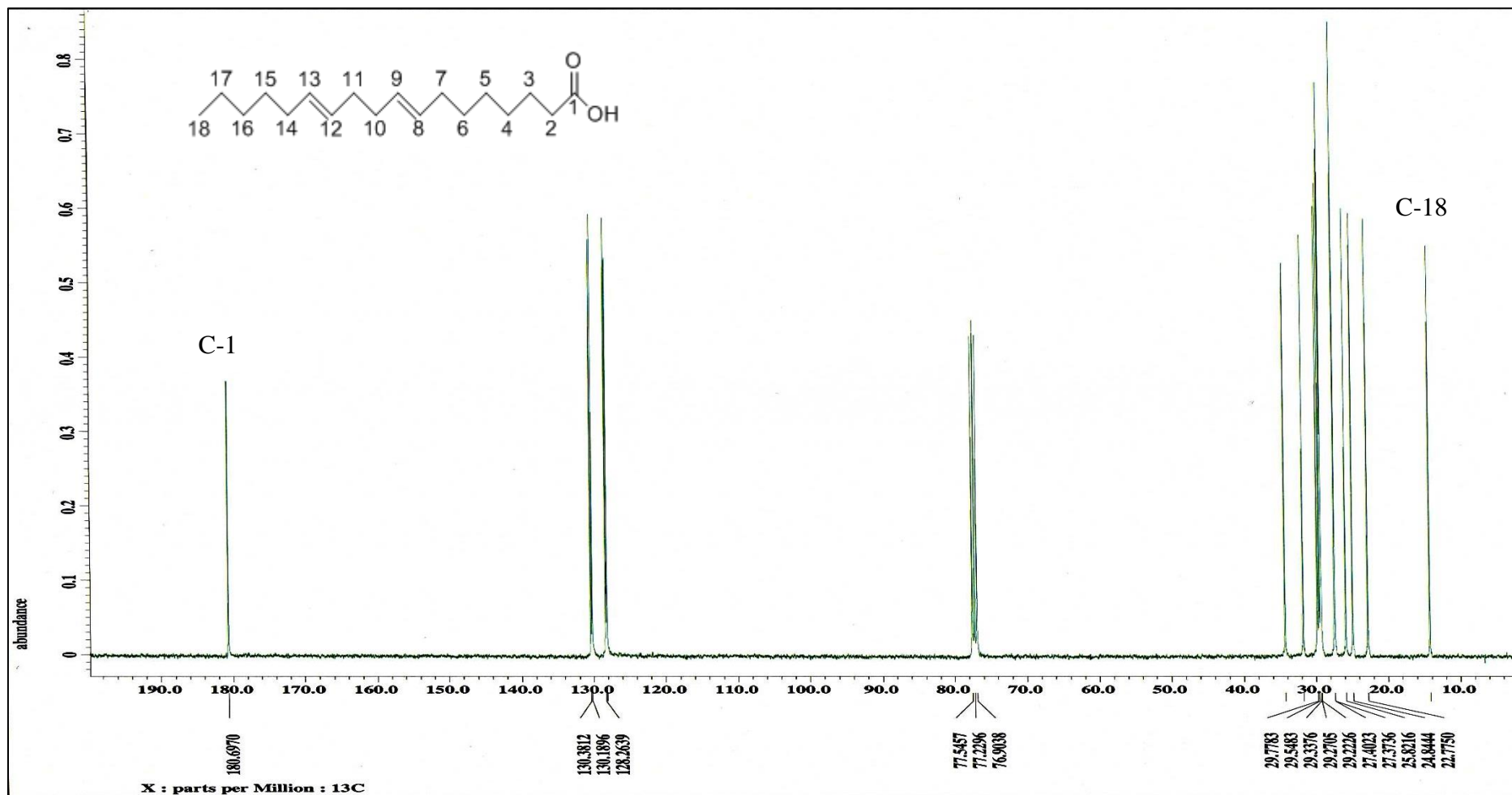


Figure 4.7b: The ^{13}C NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm)

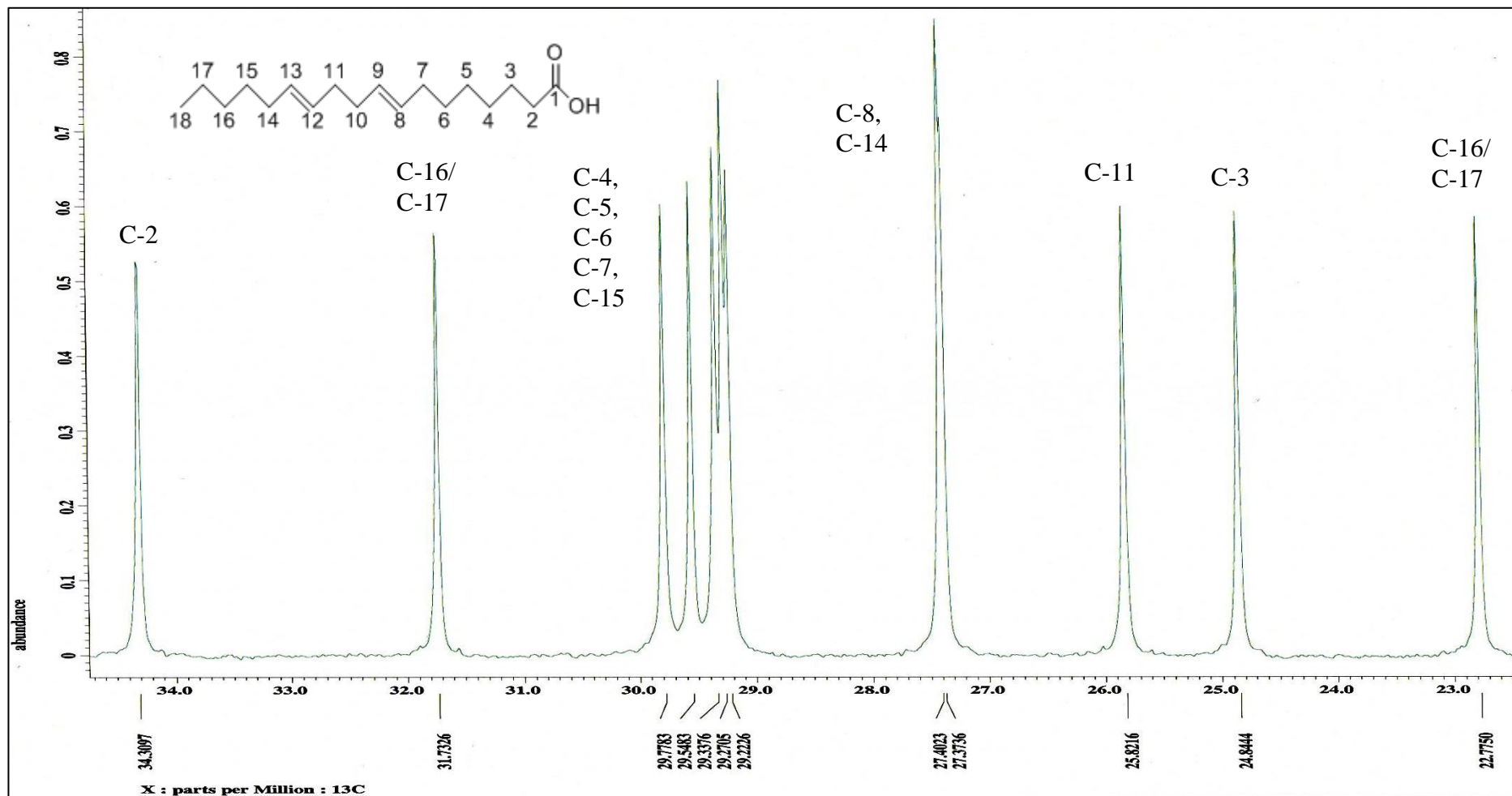


Figure 4.7b: The 13C NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl₃ (ppm) (continued)

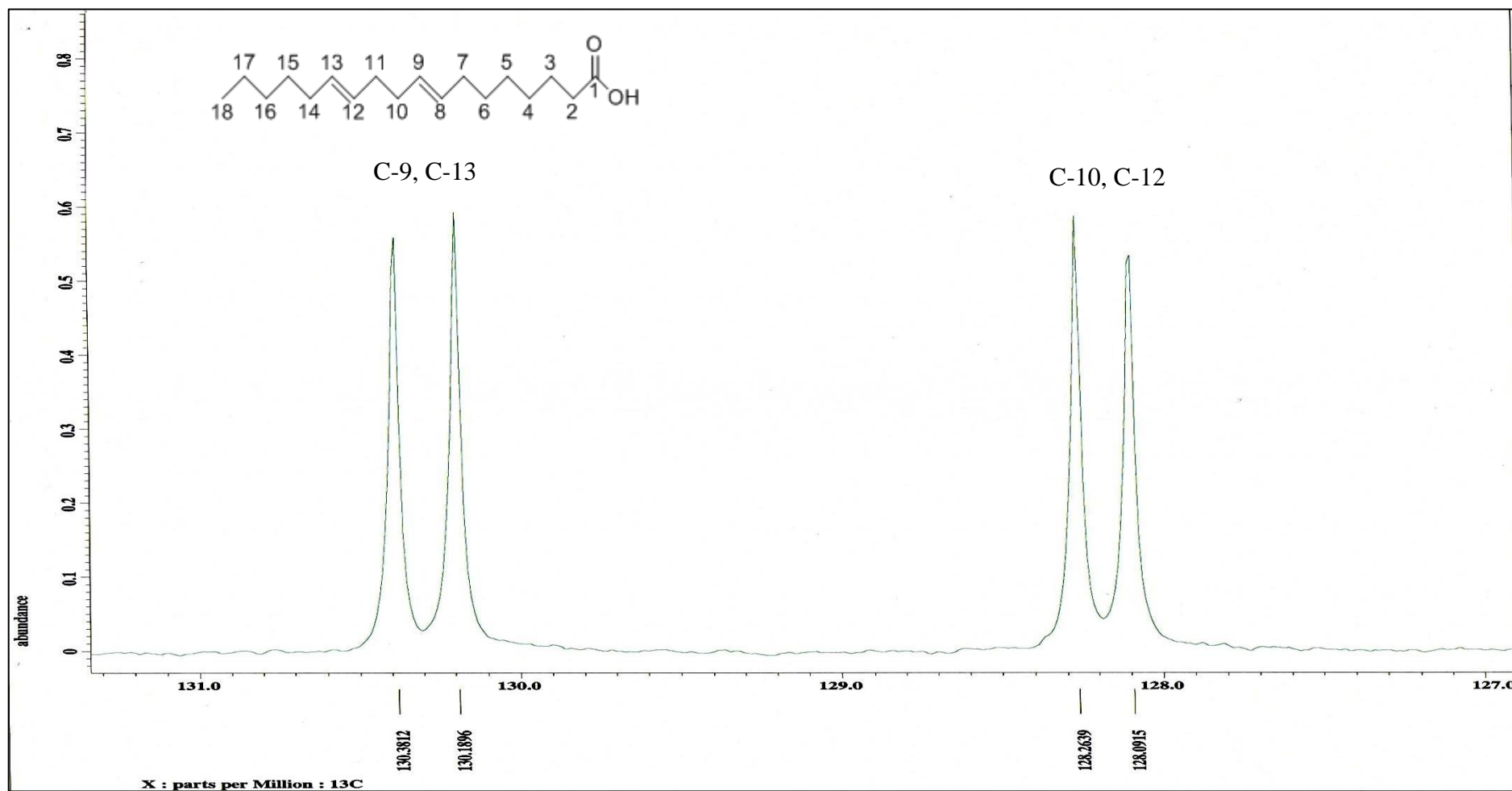


Figure 4.7b: The ¹³C NMR 400 Hz of linoleic acid in CDCl₃ (ppm) (continued)

Table 4.11: The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR 400Hz data of palmitic acid

Position	$\delta\text{H}^{\text{a}}$	δC
1		180.2
2	2.35 <i>t</i> (7.3)	22.9
3	1.64 <i>m</i>	32.2
4	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.3 ^c
5	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.3 ^c
6	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.5 ^c
7	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.5 ^c
8	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.6 ^c
9	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.6 ^c
10	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.7 ^c
11	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.7 ^c
12	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.8 ^c
13	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	29.9 ^c
14	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	24.9 ^d
15	1.26 <i>m</i> ^b	34.3 ^d
16	0.89 <i>t</i> (6.4)	14.3

^aCoupling constants (J) in Hz are indicated in parentheses

^bOverlapping signals

^{c,d}Chemical shifts are interchangeable

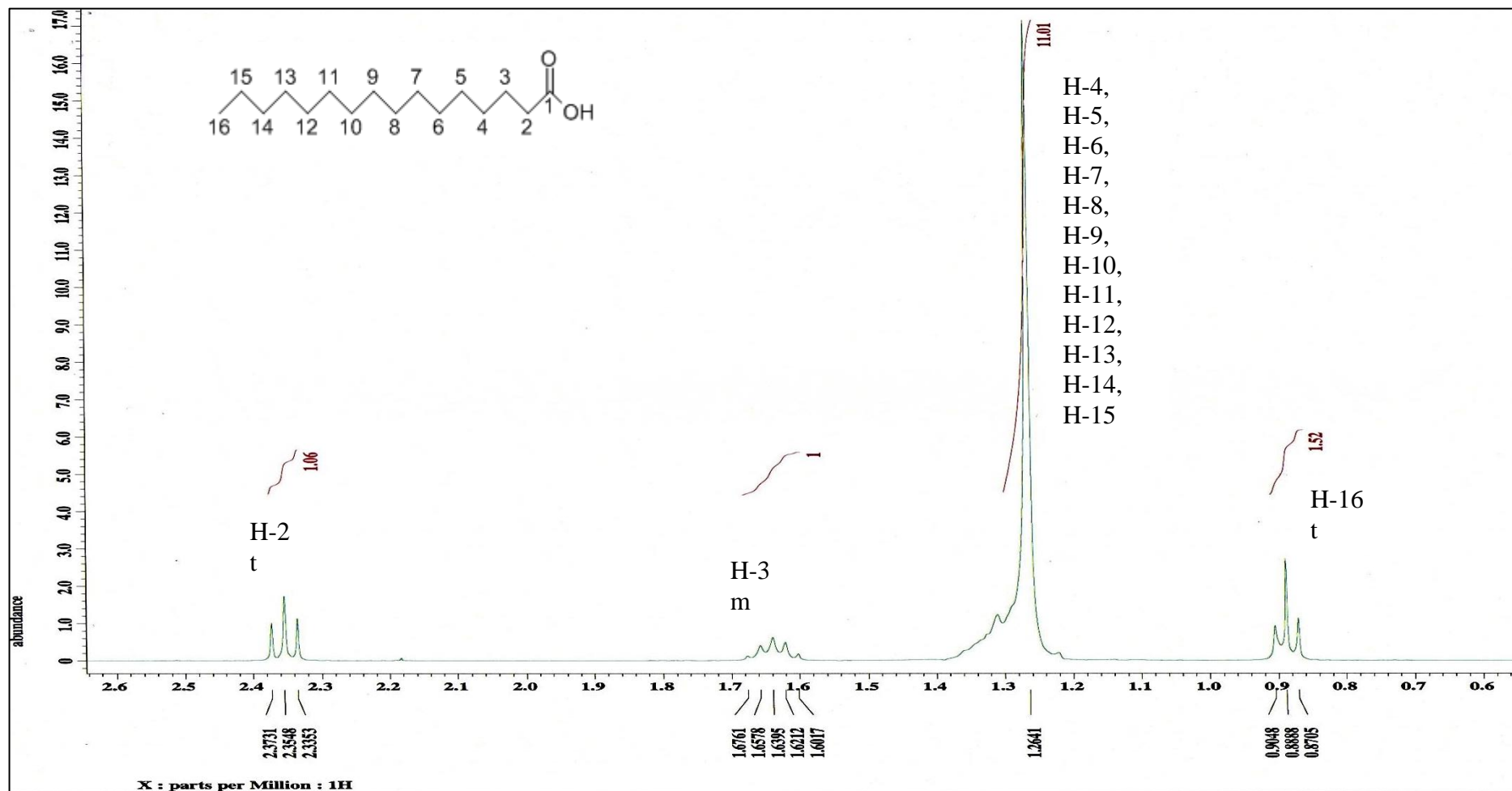


Figure 4.8a: The ^1H NMR 400 Hz of palmitic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm)

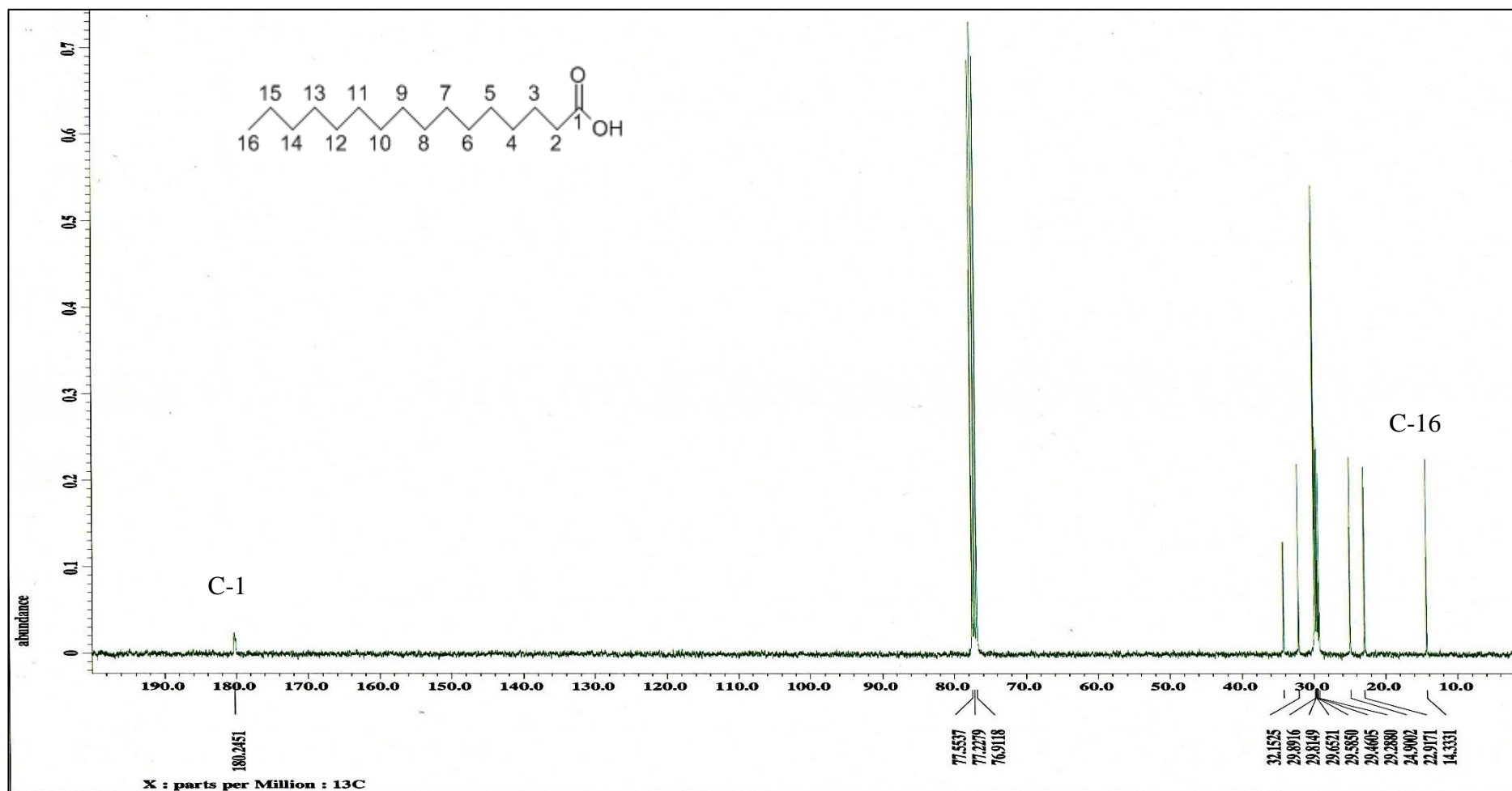


Figure 4.8b: The ^{13}C NMR 400 Hz of palmitic acid in CDCl_3 (ppm)

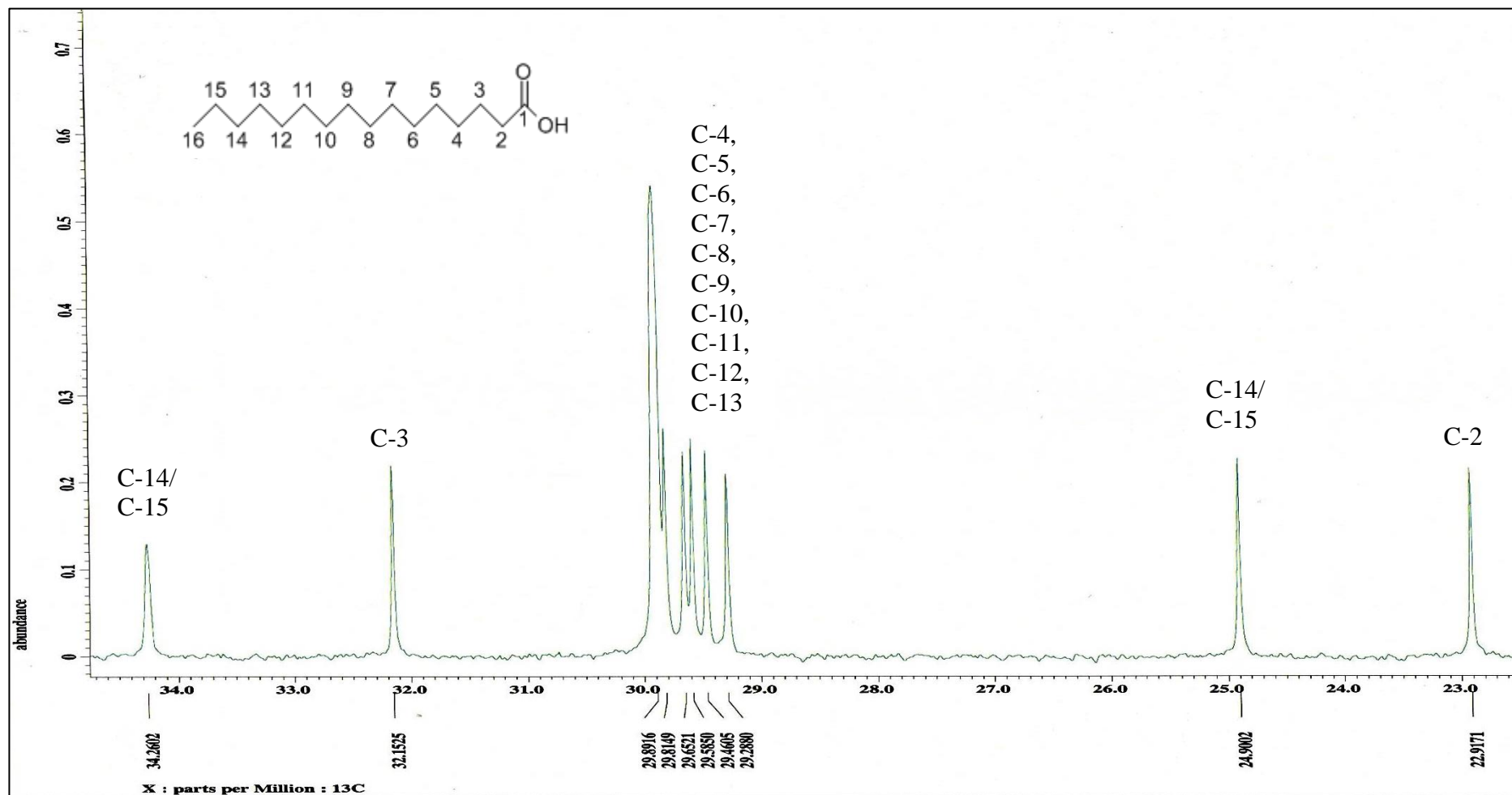


Figure 4.8b: The 13C NMR 400 Hz of palmitic acid in CDCl₃ (ppm) (continued)

4.7 Mass spectrometry data of metabolites from *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

The mass of linoleic acid was obtained as 280.2402 with mass of negative ions (M-H)⁻ at 279.233 and mass of positive ions (M+H)⁺ at 281.2475. The mass of palmitic acid was obtained as 256.2402 with mass of negative ions (M-H)⁻ at 255.233 and mass of positive ions (M+H)⁺ at 257.2475. The LCMS spectrums of linoleic acid and palmitic acid are shown in Figure 4.9a and 3.9b respectively.

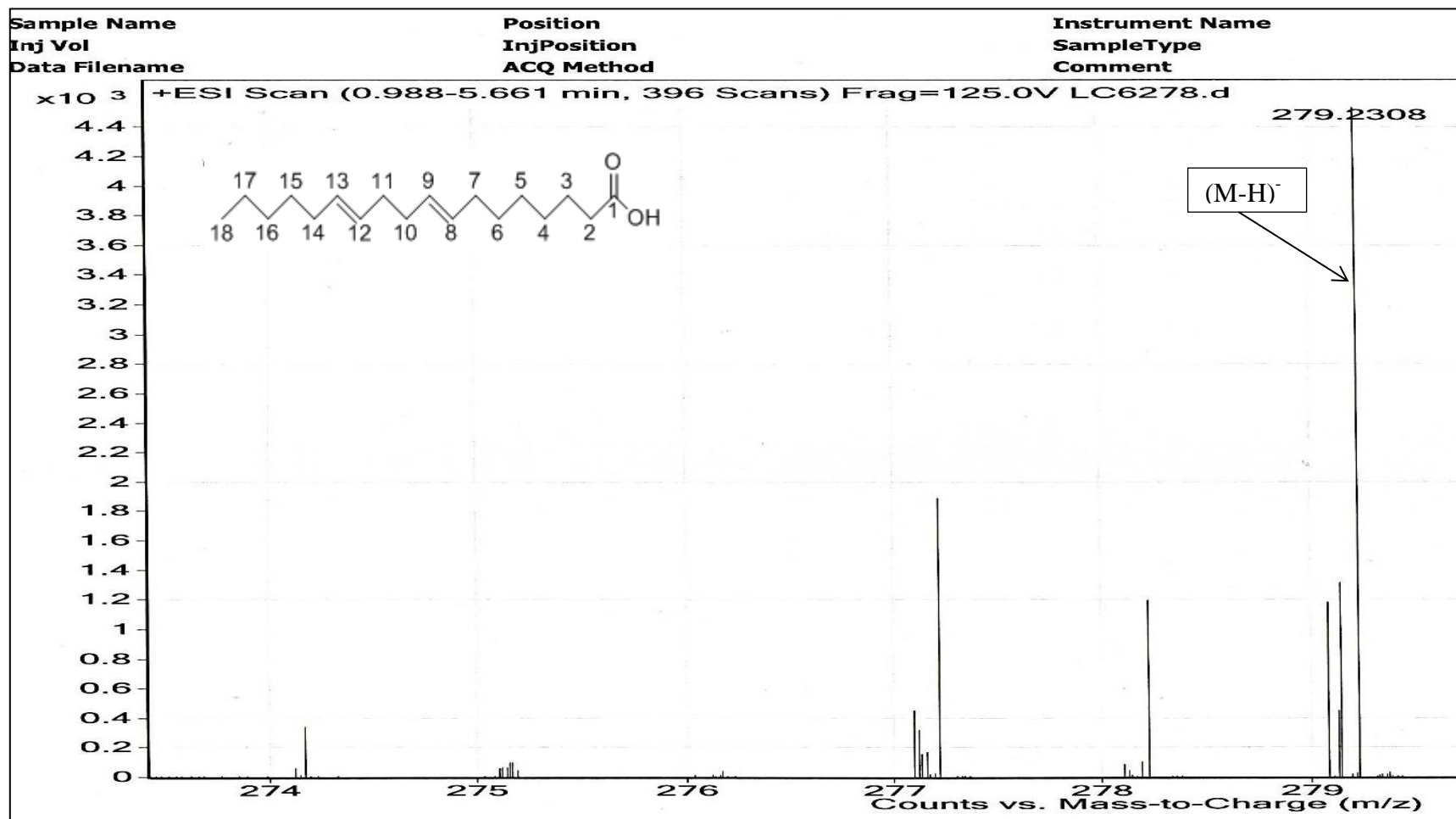


Figure 4.9a: LCMS spectrum of linoleic acid

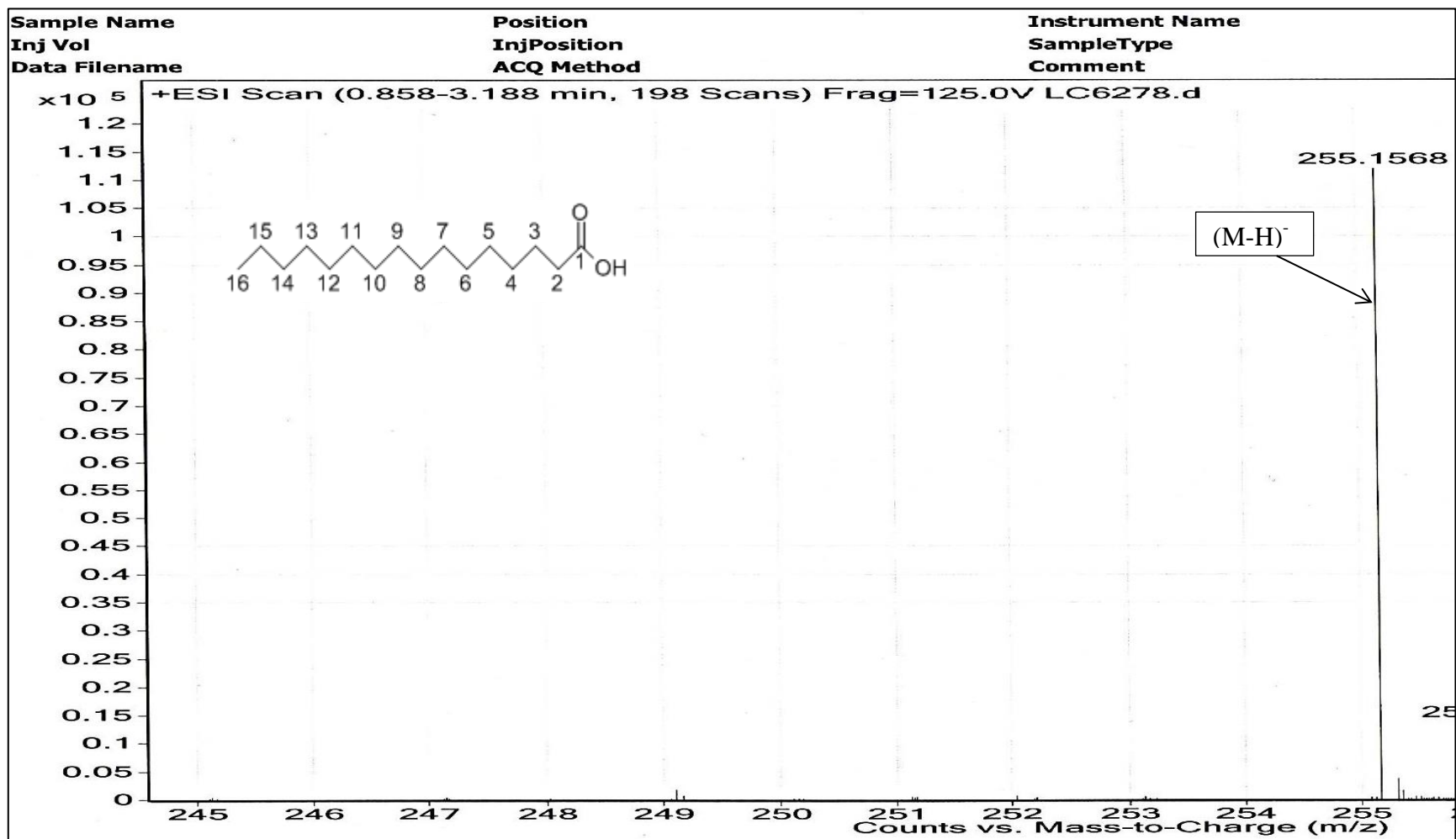


Figure 4.9b: LCMS spectrum of palmitic acid

4.8 Infrared (IR) spectroscopy data of metabolites from *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

Infrared (IR) spectrum of linoleic acid is shown in Figure 4.10a while the IR spectrum of palmitic acid is shown in Figure 4.10b. Both linoleic acid and palmitic acid are chemically classified as carboxylic acids which give them both similar stretch and bending patterns. Both IR spectrums have characteristic O-H stretch from 3300 to 2500 cm^{-1} . The normal ranges of stretches and bends for functional groups in carboxylic acids are; C=O stretch at 1760 to 1690 cm^{-1} , C-O stretch at 1320 to 1210 cm^{-1} , O-H bend at 1440 to 1395 cm^{-1} (Max *et al.*, 2004). Based on the IR spectrum of linoleic acid in Figure 4.10a, there is strong O-H stretch from 3300 to 2500 cm^{-1} with C=O stretch at 1747.32 cm^{-1} , O-H bend at 1325.25 cm^{-1} , and C-O stretch similarly at 1325.25 cm^{-1} . As for the IR spectrum of palmitic acid in Figure 4.10b, there is a strong O-H stretch from 3300 to 2500 cm^{-1} with C=O stretch at 1713 cm^{-1} , O-H bend at 1411.07 and 1378.28 cm^{-1} and C-O stretch at 1212.17, 1260.87 and 1276.75 cm^{-1} .

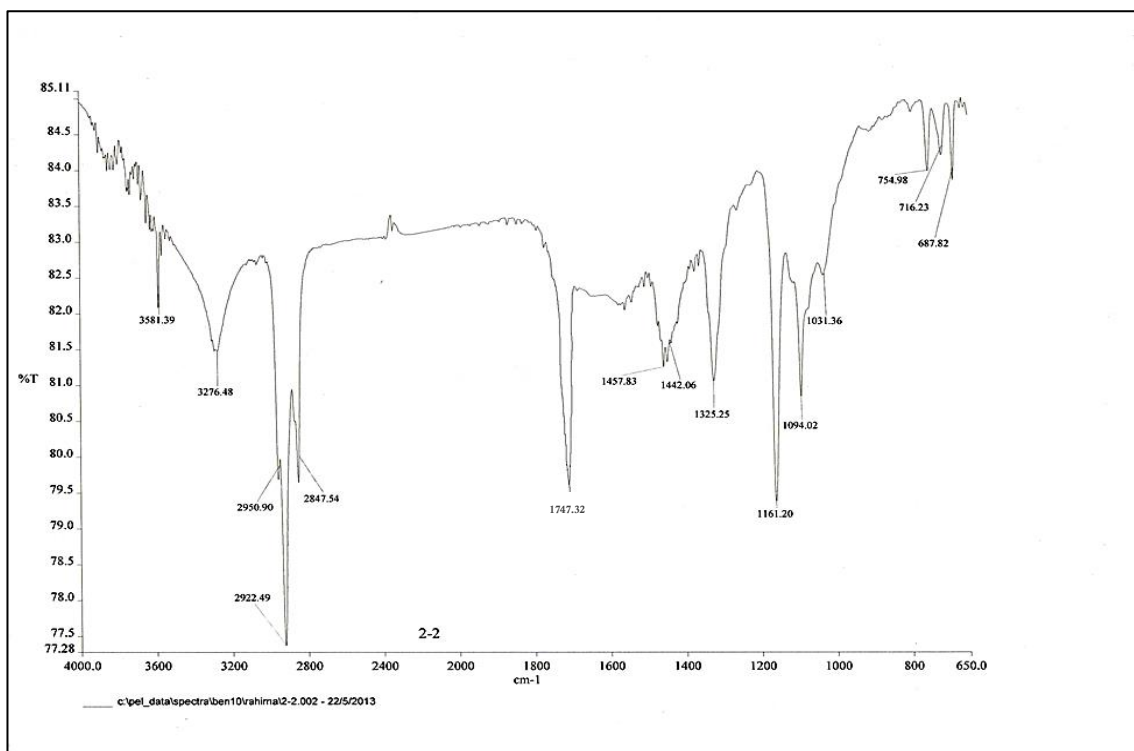


Figure 4.10a: IR spectroscopy data of linoleic acid

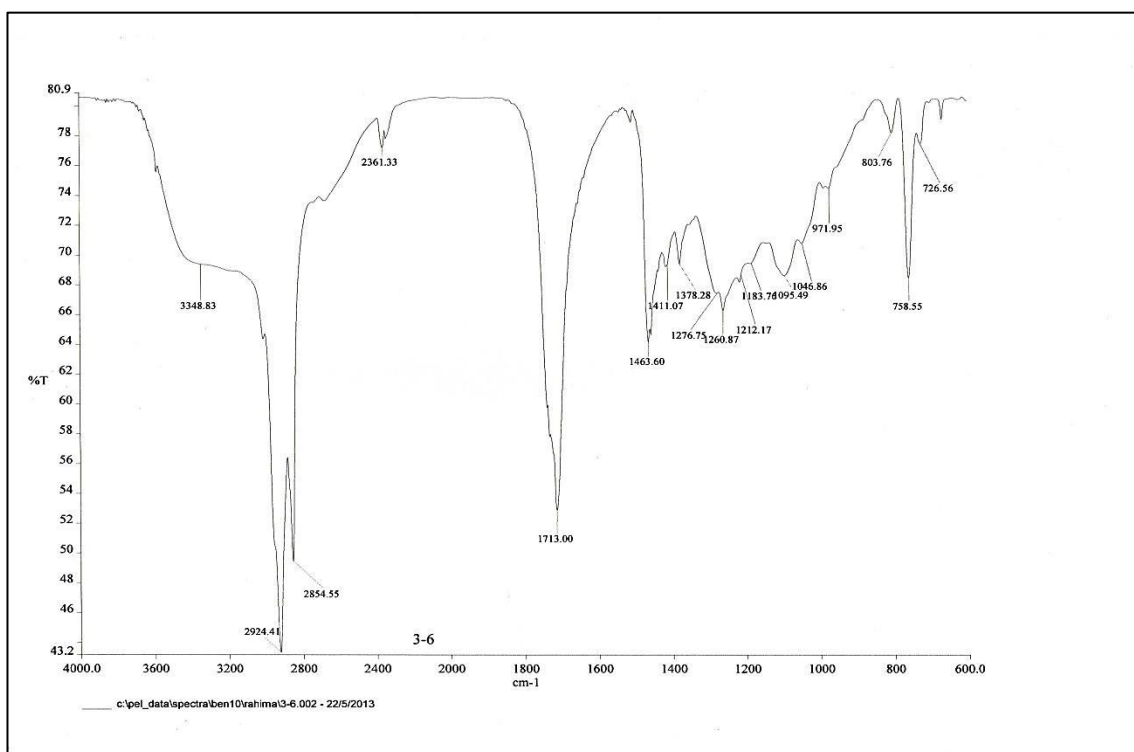


Figure 4.10b: IR spectroscopy data of palmitic acid

4.9 Ultraviolet (UV) spectroscopy data of metabolites from *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

The UV absorbances of bioactive compounds are shown in Figures 3.11a and 3.11b. The UV absorbance data of linoleic acid is displayed in Figure 4.11a while the data for palmitic acid is shown in Figure 4.11b. The standard absorbance range of absorbance for carboxylic acids is usually at 200 to 210 nm (Weishaar *et al.*, 2003). Both linoleic acid and palmitic acid exhibited maximum absorbance at 206 and 204 nm respectively, thus justifying that they are indeed carboxylic acids.

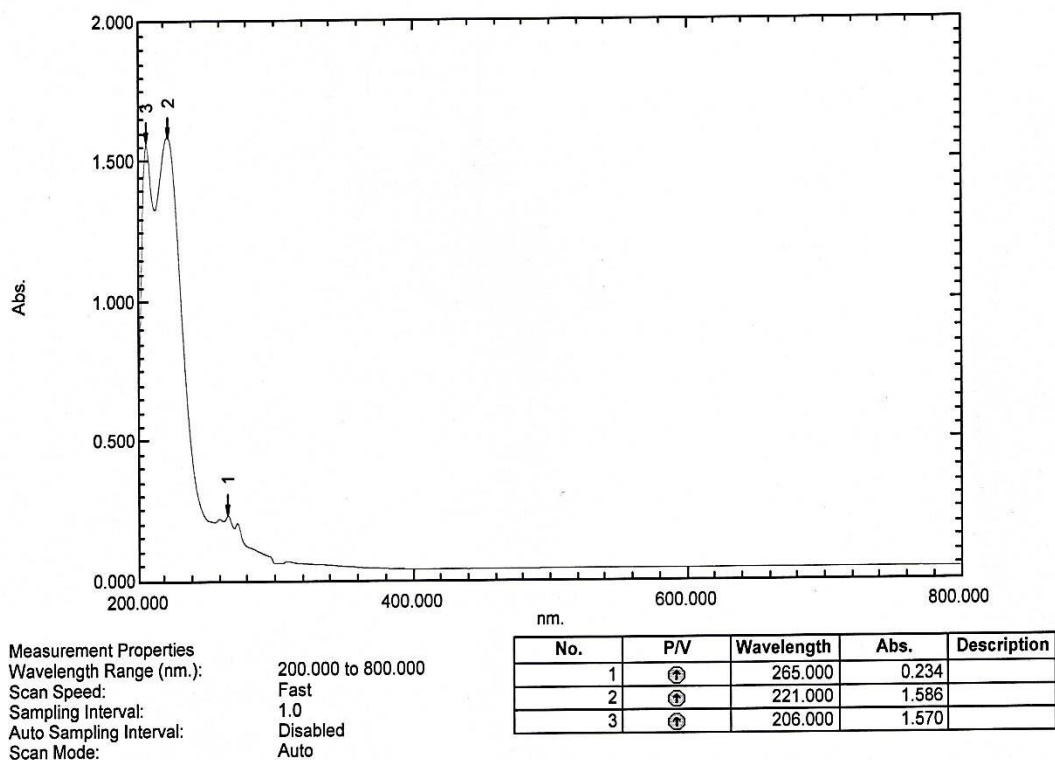


Figure 4.11a: UV spectroscopy data of linoleic acid

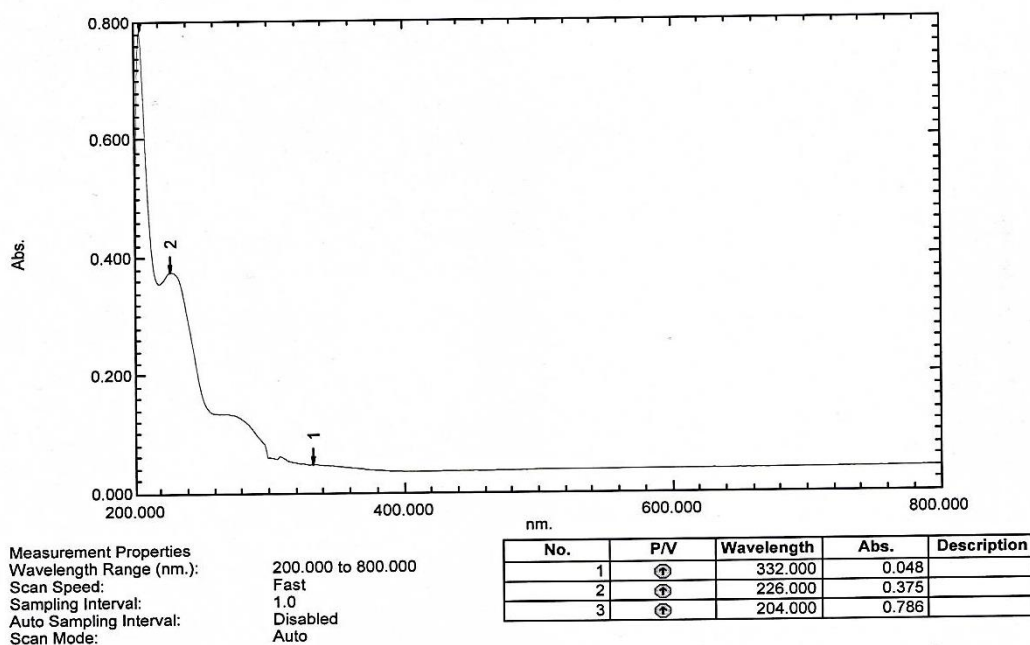


Figure 4.11b: UV spectroscopy data of palmitic acid

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Significance of molecular methods in the identification of endophytic fungi from *Ipomoea pes-caprae* and *Vitex rotundifolia*

Endophytic fungi are commonly described as fungi that completes at least a part of their life cycle inside plant tissues without causing any harm to the host plant (Linnakoski *et al.*, 2012). Some reports have also suggested the possibility of endophytic fungi having evolved from pathogens having latent phases within their life cycles thus justifying as to why these fungi do not cause harm to their host plants (Linnakoski *et al.*, 2012). The identification and diversity studies of fungi were traditionally carried out based on the morphological characteristics of the sexual and asexual fruiting bodies of the fungi. Pang *et al.* (2005) however debated that this mode of identification alone is insufficient due to reasons such as, inability of some fungi to grow in culture especially under laboratory conditions, different sporulation rates, multiple life cycle forms and also the difficulties in distinguishing species with similar morphologies. This is where molecular techniques came to play an essential role towards a more reliable method of fungal identification. Keeping the above statements in addition to the absence of fruiting bodies in consideration, the endophytic fungi isolated in the present study were identified using molecular techniques.

Prior to this study, there have been no reports of endophytic fungi isolated from the leaves of *V. rotundifolia*. Studies by Khan *et al.* (2012) have only reported plant growth promoting endophytic fungi from the roots of *V. rotundifolia*. As for *I. pes-caprae*, there have been reports such as the one from Beena *et al.* (2000) in which the endophytic fungi from the roots of *I. pes-caprae* were investigated. The only endophytic

fungus reported from the leaves of *I. pes-caprae* is *Fusarium oxysporum* (Guo *et al.*, 2013). Thus overall, there has been minimal work done to investigate the diversity of endophytic fungi from the leaves of *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae*.

The 1940's marked the start for the study of fungal genetics due to the nature of fungal genes that made them ideal models (Hooley *et al.*, 2006). According to Hooley *et al.* (2006), fungal diversity in marine habitats can be assessed by performing PCR of repetitive DNA sequences, in particular sequences that encodes small or large ribosomal subunits and their associate ITS regions. Anderson *et al.* (2007) reported that the last decade has seen a marked progress in fungal ecology due to the use of molecular methods to analyse the variation of sequences within rRNA genes and their associated spacer regions. Fungal diversity in natural environments can be assessed using certain molecular techniques namely; denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE), temperature gradient gel electrophoresis (TGGE), single-strand conformation polymorphism (SSCP), terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP), amplified rDNA restriction analysis (ARDRA), amplified ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis (ARISA) and cloning (Pang *et al.*, 2005). However most of the techniques mentioned above are more suitable when the sample in concern is a mixture of fungi strains usually involving direct environmental samples.

The objective of the present study was to identify the endophytic fungi strains to the level of its genus based on the database, therefore only the ITS region was analysed. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was employed to amplify and further compare the sequences of the ITS region incorporating the 5.8S rRNA fungal gene to identify the endophytic fungal isolates. The ITS primers work well on DNA from individual organisms thus making this technique possible as all the fungal strains in the present study were pure cultures (Prewitt *et al.*, 2008). The rRNA genes are a multi-copy gene family that are arranged in tandem repeats where each major repeat contains coding

regions of the primary rRNAs and non-coding spacer regions. In ecological studies of fungi, the genes encoding 18S rRNA and 25/28S rRNA, and the ITS regions incorporating the 5.8S rRNA gene are the target regions within the rRNA gene cluster normally studied upon (Anderson *et al.*, 2007). In comparison to other rRNA gene clusters, the ITS region is extremely variable and have evolved at a slow pace thus allowing the detection of a higher number of phylotypes (Prewitt *et al.*, 2008). Although highly conserved within most species but the ITS region is variable between species thus making it suitable in taxonomy studies (Prewitt *et al.*, 2008). The forward ITS 5 and reverse ITS 4 primers in the present study were to target the ITS regions flanking the 5.8S rRNA, similar to studies by Guo *et al.* (2003). According to Toju *et al.* (2012), primers designed for ITS analysis should match the sequences of 99% of fungal lowest taxonomic units (LTUs) to enable a thorough and unbiased DNA barcoding. Both primers ITS 5 and ITS 4 exhibits broad coverage of fungal lowest taxonomic units (LTUs) with the coverage of ITS 4 as broad as that of any other primer including new and improvised primers (Nikolcheva *et al.*, 2004). Nikolcheva *et al.* (2004) reported that the forward primer ITS 5 is capable of amplifying all Fungi thereby justifying the choice of this primer in the present study.

When compared to other primers, the ITS primers provided higher hit rates for fungal sequences in BLAST searches due to the abundance of ITS data in the GenBank (Pang *et al.*, 2005; Arnold, 2007). However the limitations with using the ITS data as a tool for identification is that its accuracy is limited to comparing distantly related organisms (Lamothe *et al.*, 2002). Therefore in phylogenetic studies of fungi, generally more than one gene is studied upon in determining the identity and relatedness of fungi strains. There have also been studies that indicate the ITS data alone is insufficient for identifications due to the fact that some fungi are not represented in the GenBank and therefore fungi strains may be misidentified due to the lack of taxonomic

information (Arnold, 2007). A study by Prewitt *et al.* (2008) on the phylogenetic of wood decay fungi reported that the ITS sequence alone could not resolve the differentiation between certain species of basidiomycetes. Studies such as those by Ho *et al.* (2012) employed the analysis of sequences from two different genes to obtain a more accurate identification of endophytic fungi strains. However in this study we merely focused on basic identification as the objective of this study was more towards investigation of the bioactivity of the fungi thereby justifying the use of only one gene in the identification of the fungi.

5.2 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing of marine derived fungi extracts

The disk diffusion test is usually the gold standard by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) in qualitative antimicrobial susceptibility testing. This technique relates the diameter of zone of growth inhibition around antibiotic disks to the susceptibility of the isolates tested. The plug assay technique by Hoskisson *et al.* (2001) and Ezra *et al.* (2004) was chosen due to its inexpensive and fast approach to detect the antibacterial bioactivity of both marine derived manglicolous and endophytic fungi. In the present study, the plug assay technique served as a primary method to downstream the large amount of fungi isolates to achieve a systematic way of identifying the fungi isolates with promising antibacterial activity for further analysis. This assay requires no prior extraction of fungal secondary metabolites which eliminated the time and consumables consumed in doing so. However, this assay has its own share of disadvantages such as; the antibacterial activity results obtained are only qualitative and not quantitative measurements (Zainuddin *et al.*, 2008). This is because the plug assay only assesses the mere exhibition of antibacterial activity without taking into account the concentration of the fungi extracts as a parameter in the display of antibacterial activity.

The plug assay does not employ the need for prior extraction of fungal secondary metabolites thus there is no way of ensuring the presence and concentration of secondary metabolites secreted on the medium. There may be a possibility that the fungi that exhibited no antibacterial activity in the plug assay, may exhibit antibacterial activity when cultured in broth under specific conditions and their secondary metabolites extracted with appropriate solvent systems and then further tested, similar to studies by Zainuddin *et al.* (2008). To ensure that the fungal culture media did not influence the antibacterial activity displayed by the fungi, the exchange of a plug of sterile PDA instead of fungal culture was used as the negative control in the plug assay.

The seven test bacteria used in this study comprised of five Gram positive and two Gram negative bacteria. All the bacterial strains chosen were known causes of nosocomial infections affecting the medical world. Test bacteria were also chosen based on four criterias' such as Gram negative or positive, morphology, endospore and non-endospore forming bacteria, enterobacteriaceae and non-enterobacteriaceae. These criteria served as a tool towards understanding if the antibacterial activity displayed by the fungi were selective towards or against a given morphological or physiological trait of the test bacteria. Focusing on the first criteria, the Gram positive bacterial strains consisted of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Micrococcus luteus* and *Enterococcus faecalis* while the Gram negative bacterial strains consisted of *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Taking into account of the second criteria which is morphology, the test bacteria were selected based on their shapes. *S. aureus*, *M. lutes*, *E. faecalis* and *E. coli* are all spherical/cocci shaped while *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis*, *P. aeruginosa* are rod shaped bacteria. Thirdly in terms of endospore formation, only *B. cereus* and *B. subtilis* are endospore forming bacteria while the other five are non-endospore forming bacteria. Lastly, as for bacteria from the enterobacteriaceae family, the bacterium *E. coli* belongs to this family.

One of the earliest techniques of antimicrobial susceptibility testing was the macrobroth method. This technique provides quantitative results but one of the principal disadvantages of this method is that it is rather tedious and requires the use of large amounts of reagents and space. The miniature version of the macrobroth method is the broth microdilution technique by Eloff, (1998) which is carried out in 96 well plates and requires relatively smaller amounts of reagents and space in comparison. Another advantage of the broth microdilution method is that this technique can also be performed using both manual and automated systems whereby hundreds of 96 well trays can be prepared from a single master set of dilutions in a short period of time

(Jorgensen *et al.*, 2009). The broth microdilution assay was used to screen the antibacterial activity of EA crude extracts of selected marine derived fungi in the present study. This assay required prior extraction of the secondary metabolite crude from the fungi using EA. Ethyl acetate was chosen as the solvent of extraction mainly due to its high polarity index of 3.9 but yet with a solubility of 8.7% in water. Due to fact that the sample to be extracted was fermentation broth which is aqueous, the solvent of choice needed to be able to extract both polar and non-polar chemical compounds while at the same time be non-soluble in water to achieve clear separation and partition. The solvent EA has been a favoured solvent in the extraction of fungal secondary metabolites as reported in similar studies by Han *et al.* (2009) and Kjer *et al.* (2010).

In the broth microdilution assay, the extraction of sterile PDB broth with EA served as a negative control to prove that the bioactivity displayed was only with respect to the fungal secondary metabolites and not the constituents of the broth. From the results obtained, the sterile broth extract showed no antibacterial activity against all test bacteria. The antibiotics chloramphenicol and penicillin G served as positive controls in this bioassay. The antibiotics in this study possessed two varying antibacterial mechanisms. Penicillin G is a β -lactam antibiotic that inhibits the formation of peptidoglycan cross-links in the bacterial cell wall while chloramphenicol acts as a protein synthesis inhibitor. This study employed two different antibiotics as controls as not all bacterial strains are susceptible to one class of antibiotic and thereby the use of only one antibiotic may provide a false assumption that the bacterial strain is antibiotic resistant when in actual fact, the bacterial cell does not provide suitable target for the action of the antibiotic used.

The broth microdilution technique was employed to obtain a more quantitative data of the antibacterial activities of marine derived fungi based on preliminary analysis

results through the plug assay. Although the disc diffusion assay has always been a favoured choice in antimicrobial susceptibility testing, this assay is only a semi-quantitative assay in comparison to the broth microdilution assay which is more quantitative (Domig *et al.*, 2007).

5.3 Endophytic fungi as producers of bioactive metabolites

The two host plants in the present study have not been fully exploited in terms of their endophytic fungi. There have been no studies on the bioactivities of endophytic fungi from the plant *V. rotundifolia* while there was only one study pertaining to the bioactivity of endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae*. A study by Guo *et al.* (2012) reported the isolation of exopolysaccharide from the endophytic fungus *F. oxysporum* isolated from the plant *I. pes-caprae*. However the study mentioned above was not related to antibacterial bioactivity from the endophytic fungi. Other than that, no other reports have been published from studies on the bioactivity of endophytic fungi from these 2 plants.

Strobel *et al.* (2003) stated that the rationale behind endophytic fungi host selection for bioactivity studies should be based on, firstly the uniqueness of the host's environment such as harsh environments that require specific survival strategies and secondly, plants that possess an ethno botanical history. Endophytic fungi isolated from plants exploited for their medicinal values have been known to produce interesting compounds with profound activities (Suryanarayan *et al.*, 2009). Both the marine associated plants chosen in this study namely; *V. rotundifolia* and *I. pes-caprae*, have been reported to be exploited as herbal remedies in traditional medicine which could have played an important role in the display of their antibacterial activities.

The seed of *V. rotundifolia* has been reported to be used for cold remedies and headaches by the Japanese and Chinese; it is used as a raw material for Chinese traditional medicine. Some diterpenoids and sesquiterpenoids have been obtained from this plant as well as some insecticidal substances (Kawazoe *et al.*, 1999). A study by Ono *et al.* (1998), reported the discovery of 7 phenolic compounds with strong antioxidant activities as well as the isolation of a new labdane-type diterpene glycoside

from *V. rotundifolia*. In Korea, this plant is well known as “Man Hyung Ja” and is used by natives against headaches related to upper respiratory infection as well as various allergic diseases (Shin *et al.*, 2000). The analgesic properties of *V. rotundifolia* have also been reported and scientists have isolated polymethoxyflavonoid, a compound with the ability to inhibit proliferation of lymphocyte and the growth of some cancer cell lines (Ko *et al.*, 2000).

The plant *I. pes-caprae* in the present study also has well known ethnobotanical history where the genus *Ipomoea* from the Convolvulaceae family is a known source of complex resin glycosides with interesting bioactivities. *I. pes-caprae* is used as an herbal drug in Mexico mainly in the treatment of kidney complaints, digestive disorders, hypertension, arthritis, rheumatism, skin infections and other inflammatory conditions. Furthermore, nine compounds have been isolated from *I. pes-caprae* with antibacterial activity (Martinez *et al.*, 2010). Umamaheshwari *et al.* (2012) reported that this plant has also been widely explored for its antioxidant, analgesic, anti-inflammatory and good anti-nociceptive properties.

The endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia*; *C. eragrostidis* (JN943448.1), *Curvularia* sp. (GQ1874733.1), *G. mangiferae* (KC686598.1), *Paecilomyces* sp. and *Phoma* sp. (JN207285,1) only displayed antibacterial activity against three of the seven test bacteria namely; *S. aureus*, *B. cereus* and *B. subtilis*. None of the endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia* exhibited antibacterial activity against the Gram negative bacteria in this study. This concludes a rather narrow range of antibacterial activity by the endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia* as the activity recorded covered only Gram positive bacteria. Results showed that the endophytic fungi isolated from the plant *I. pes-caprae* possessed prominent activity with broad spectrum against both Gram positive and negative bacteria compared to the endophytic fungi strains from *V. rotundifolia*.

This study reported that 20% and 3.33% of endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* exhibited antibacterial activity against the Gram negative bacteria *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* respectively. Based on reports published, *I. pes-caprae* has been reported to possess antibacterial activity while no reports of antibacterial activity has been studied or reported from *V. rotundifolia*. Therefore the broad spectrum of antibacterial trait displayed by the plant *I. pes-caprae* could have been trait inherited by the endophytic fungi isolated from the plant. In a more recent report, Radic *et al.* (2012) and Kusari *et al.* (2012) characterized endophytic fungi as a “treasure chest of antibacterial substances”; further stressing that they possess the ability to produce same or similar bioactive compounds as the fungi’s host plant.

The hypothesis of endophytic fungi being able to synthesize similar compounds as their host plants was initiated by the discovery of the revolutionary anticancer drug paclitaxel (taxol), from the endophytic fungi *Taxomyces andreanae* in 1993 (Stierle *et al.*, 1993). Taxol was previously isolated from the Pacific yew tree. Although the report by Stierle *et al.* (1993) is still regarded baseless by some scientists, there have been other reports where the active compound previously known to originate from a particular plant, is found to be also produced by the endophytic fungi of the same plant. For instance, the cerebral stimulant and vasodilator vincamine which was isolated from the plant *Vinca minor* was also isolated from the endophytic fungi of *V. minor* (Yin *et al.*, 2011). Another such report was the isolation of rhein, an antimicrobial and antitumor compound known to be from the Chinese medicinal plant *Rheum palmatum* L. from the endophytic fungi of the same plant (You *et al.*, 2013). Thus these findings further support the hypothesis that the activities demonstrated by the endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* may be influenced by the antibacterial activities that this plant is known to possess.

Over the years, the studies on fungal secondary metabolites were based mainly on random activity screening. Recently, scientists have adopted a systematic approach in the discovery of metabolites of fungal origin with proven benefits to human life. According to Schulz *et al.* (2002) fungi that occupy certain ecological niche and possess characteristic metabolic interactions with their surrounding environment, may possess a greater potential for the synthesis of novel compounds. In line with the statement by Schulz *et al.* (2002), the collection site of *I. pes-caprae*, which is the west coast, Peninsular Malaysia, could have also played a role to influence the antibacterial activity exhibited by the endophytic fungi isolated from the plant; as justified by Agusa *et al.* (2005) stating that the Straits of Malacca (west coast, Peninsular Malaysia) is subjected to higher pollution rates due to industrialization and urbanization besides being the major shipping hub of the country. Studies by Yap *et al.* (2002) stated that the sediment samples analyzed from the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia reported high levels of heavy metal contamination; further justifying the high pollution rates in the stated area.

Overall, the antibacterial activity displayed by the endophytic fungi was found to be more pronounced against Gram positive in comparison to Gram negative bacteria. This finding is in line with other studies by Tong *et al.* (2011) and Buatong *et al.* (2011). Studies have shown that Gram negative bacteria are more resistant to antimicrobials due to the presence of the outer membrane permeability barrier which acts as a barrier to limit the influx of antimicrobials to their targets in the bacterial cell (Poole, 2001). Furthermore, Gram negative bacteria belonging to the Enterobacteriaceae family (eg: *E. coli*) have been proven as serious threats in nosocomial infections due to their spread of resistance (Paterson, 2006). Bacteria from the Enterobacteriaceae family have been reported to produce enzymes such as Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamase (ESBL) which are able to break down many commonly used antibiotics; which justifies

the resistance displayed by *E. coli* in this study with none of the only 20% of the endophytes from *I. pes-caprae* were active against this bacterium.

The ability of endophytic fungi to produce the same types of compounds as its host plant may provide an alternative strategy towards the sustainable production of certain pharmacologically important substances without exploiting or affecting the biodiversity of plants and in the same time reducing the market cost of the product. Besides this, fungi can be commercially cultivated under optimized fermentation conditions thereby leading to continuous and reproducible compounds. This is more effective than harvesting the same compounds from its host plant as the production of such compounds is dependent on the host's environment and as such the quantities and quality of compounds produced by the plant may differ according to different environments (Kusari *et al.*, 2012).

Certain endophytic fungi isolates in the present study exhibited promising antibacterial potential and may therefore be potential candidates for the discovery of new and novel antibacterial compounds. Endophytic fungi especially the ones isolated from the plant *I. pes-caprae* namely; *Minimidochium* sp. and *Bipolaris* sp. should be further analysed to elucidate their bioactive compounds through bioassay guided fractionation coupled with NMR studies.

5.3.1 Endophytic fungi and their antimicrobial activities

A number of endophytic fungi strains isolated in this study have also been reported from previous studies. The antimicrobial activities of these fungi have also been stated in several studies which may further justify the activities similar isolates exhibited in this study. From the 34 endophytic fungi isolated from both plants in this study, the fungi strain most commonly found was *Phoma* sp. consisting of almost 14.7% of the

endophytic fungi. Fungi from the genus *Phoma* are usually characterized as phytopathogens with the ability to cause losses in commercial crops (Liu *et al.*, 2003). Although usually isolated from the terrestrial habitats, *Phoma* sp. has also been isolated from the marine environment such as from marine microbial mats in the Bahamas (Liu *et al.*, 2003). Goldring *et al.* (2012) reported the isolation of *Phoma* sp. from the shell of a crab, *Chionoecetes opilio*. The fungi *Phoma* sp. gained prominence with the discovery of phomactins, which are a novel group of terpenoid platelet activating factor antagonists with potential use in the treatment of inflammatory diseases and organ transplant rejection (Goldring *et al.*, 2006). In culture, *Phoma* sp. has been known to produce a diverse array of secondary metabolites such as the isolation of the antimicrobial compound 2-hydroxy-6-methylbenzoic acid from the endophytic *Phoma* sp. from the plant *Taraxacum mongolicum* (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). Hoffman *et al.* (2008) reported the identification of the chemical compound phomodione with potent antibacterial activities against *S. aureus* from *Phoma* sp. However only three out of the five *Phoma* sp. strains in this study displayed antibacterial activity towards test bacteria and the *Phoma* sp. strain (JQ388280.1) from *I. pes-caprae* was the only one among the rest of its kind to demonstrate activity against *S. aureus*.

The second most common isolated endophytic fungi in this study were *Bipolaris* sp. comprising of almost 11.8% of all isolated endophytic fungi. All the strains were isolated from the plant *I. pes-caprae* with none from *V. rotundifolia*. Out of the four *Bipolaris* sp. strains, two of them exhibited antibacterial activity with one strain with promising and wide spectrum activity against 85% of test bacteria in this study. The genus *Bipolaris* has been notoriously known as a plant pathogen due to their ability to produce mycotoxins and phytotoxins that in various instances are detrimental towards plants. Although mostly known for their role as plant pathogens, *Bipolaris* sp. has also been reported to produce biologically active metabolites as in studies by Arunpanichlert

et al. (2012), whereby a dimeric chromanone and a phthalide with antimicrobial and antioxidant activities was isolated from a strains of *Bipolaris* sp. derived from the seagrass, *Halophila ovalis*. While the *Bipolaris* sp. strain in this present study displayed broad spectrum antibacterial activity against both Gram positive and negative bacteria, the strains used in the study by Arunpanichlert *et al.* (2012) only managed to exhibit activity against the Gram positive bacteria *S. aureus*. These findings possess certain similarities to the present study whereby the *Bipolaris* sp. with promising antibacterial activities in this study was also derived from a marine associated plant. This also serves to prove that although the fungi *Bipolaris* sp. may not be exclusive to the terrestrial habitat and may be found in the marine environment as well.

The endophytic fungi *Myrothecium* sp. in this study displayed promising antibacterial activities against Gram positive bacteria. This fungus was previously reported to possess antifungal activities which led to the isolation of antifungal trichothecenes (Liu *et al.*, 2005). A study by Pervez *et al.* (2012) found the fungi *Myrothecium* sp. to possess good in-vitro antimicrobial activities against human pathogens such as *Salmonella typhi*, *Klebsiella pneumonia*, *B. cereus*, including the Gram negative *E.coli* while in comparison, the same fungi strain in the present study was solely potent against Gram positive bacteria. Research by Garcia *et al.* (2012) reported the display of broad spectrum of antibacterial activity from the endophytic fungi *Cochliobolus* sp. isolated from the plant *Sapindus saponaria* L. However in the present study the *Cochliobolus eragrostidis* strain displayed a more narrow range of antibacterial activity targeted more towards Gram positive bacteria while *Cochliobolus lunatus* exhibited no activity. One of the 2 *Dothideomycete* sp. isolated from *I.pescaprae* demonstrated potent antibacterial activity even managing to inhibit the bacterium *P. aeruginosa*. Previous studies by Rhoden *et al.* (2012) have also reported

antibacterial activities by *Dothideomycete* sp.; the difference being that the strain used in their study was isolated from a terrestrial medicinal plant.

Some of the other strains with a wide range of antibacterial activity covering at least 3 test bacteria were *Paecilomyces* sp., *Montagnulaceae* sp., *Fusarium equiseti*, *Minimidochium* sp., *Penicillium* sp. and *Curvularia* sp. *Curvularia* sp. have been known to produce haloperoxidase which is an enzyme with antimicrobial properties and has also been considered as a potential candidate for the development of surface disinfectants (Hansen *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore there have also been reports on antifungal activities from *Curvularia* sp. (Zhang *et al.*, 2011). There have been no reports on the antibacterial or antimicrobial activities from the fungi *Montagnulaceae* sp. and *Minimidochium* sp. Some of the endophytic fungi strains with reported antibacterial activity in previous studies have displayed no such activities in the present study. For instance the strain *Cladosporium cladosporioides* in the present study exhibited no antibacterial activity towards any of the test bacteria but a study by Wang *et al.* (2007) stated the isolation of the antimicrobial compound brefeldin A from this genus. Another similar study by Ding *et al.* (2008) also reported the isolation of antimicrobial metabolites with antibacterial activities against Gram positive and negative bacteria from *Cladosporium* sp. that was found to be associated with the red algae *Porphyra yezoensis*. Another instance where this fungus was isolated from the marine habitat is as reported in Qi *et al.* (2009) in which *Cladosporium* sp. was isolated from mangrove seawater and was reported to possess antibacterial activities against fouling bacteria. There have been several reports where the fungi *Cladosporium* sp. has been isolated as endophytic fungi especially from medicinal plants such as studies by, Powthong *et al.* (2012), Vaz *et al.* (2012) and Wang *et al.* (2007) which is similar to the present study as the *C. cladosporioides* strain obtained was from the plant *Ipes-caprae* which also is known for its medicinal values as elaborated earlier. *Fusarium equiseti* is

a fungus usually reported from the terrestrial environment however Llamas *et al.* (2008) reported the isolation of this fungal strain from fluvial channels and sea beds from the south eastern coast of Spain. Though there has been no report of bioactivity from marine derived *F. equiseti*, Shiono *et al.* (2013) stated the isolation of the antimicrobial compound fusaequisin from an endophytic fungi *F. equiseti* that was isolated from a medicinal plant. Furthermore there have also been reports of cytotoxic compound isolated from *F. equiseti* (Morrison *et al.*, 2001).

5.4 Manglicolous fungi as promising natural product reservoirs

Around 90.91% of the manglicolous fungi in this study exhibited antibacterial activity against at least one test bacteria with the highest activity recorded against the Gram positive bacteria, *B. subtilis*, *S. aureus* and *B. cereus* at 90.91%, 81.82% and 72.73% respectively. This selective antibacterial activity displayed by the manglicolous fungi against Gram positive bacteria is similar to studies by Buatong *et al.* (2011) which reported high activity by manglicolous fungi towards the Gram positive *S.aureus* but minimal activity and lack of activity against the Gram negative *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* respectively.

The manglicolous fungi displayed no antibacterial activity against *E. faecalis* and *P. aeruginosa* while the lowest percentage was recorded against *E. coli* at 18.18%. Studies have shown that Gram negative bacteria are more resistant to antimicrobials due to the presence of the outer membrane permeability barrier which acts as a barrier to limit the influx of antimicrobials to their targets in the bacterial cell (Poole, 2001). Furthermore, Gram negative bacteria belonging to the Enterobacteriaceae family (eg: *E. coli*) have been proven as serious threats in nosocomial infections due to their spread of resistance (Paterson, 2006). Bacteria from the Enterobacteriaceae family have been reported to produce enzymes such as Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamase (ESBL) which are able to break down many commonly used antibiotics thus providing a probable justification to the lack of activity exhibited by the fungal extracts towards *E. coli*.

Many marine derived fungi have been reported to be able to produce secondary metabolites with interesting bioactivities, some with selective activity and other with broad spectrum of activities. Studies have reported fungi such as *Verruculina enalia* and *Corollospora maritima* with the potential to produce antibacterial compounds. Liberra

et al. (1998) reported the isolation of a novel antibacterial agent, corollosporine from the marine derived fungi *C. maritima*. Corollosporine is an antibiotic with phthalide activity against *S. aureus* and *B. cereus* (Neumann *et al.*, 2006). Research by Lin *et al.* (2002) isolated the metabolites enalin A and B from the mangrove derived fungi *V.enalia* which was isolated from salt lake in the Bahamas. Therefore the antibacterial activities displayed by the fungi *V. enalia* and *C. maritima* in this study, could have been due to the presence of the reported antibacterial compounds known to be produced by these strains.

Li *et al.* (2010) claimed that the mangrove on the South China Sea coast plays host to an abundant diversity of marine derived fungi that may be an important source of new and novel metabolites with interesting bioactivities. Recently, the research of natural products from marine derived fungi experienced a boost when a group of Chinese researchers' uncovered the immensely large fungal diversity in the unique mangrove habitats on the tropical island of Hainan (Ebel, 2012). Ebel, (2012) stated that only 6% of all new compounds from marine derived fungi originated from mangrove derived fungi. This suggests that though the fungal diversity in mangrove habitats is vast, they have yet to be fully explored for their bioactive metabolites.

5.5 Effect of culture conditions in the production of fungal secondary metabolites

Culture conditions of fungi have been proven to modulate the types and physiochemical properties of secondary metabolites produced, thus altering the levels and intensity of their bioactivity as stated in studies by Ramos *et al.* (2011), Sood, (2011) and Kang *et al.* (2013). A study by Ramos *et al.* (2011) reported differential bioactivity displayed by the same fungal strain with differing incubation times and carbon and nitrogen sources.

In the present study, the antibacterial activities of all marine derived fungi were firstly evaluated using the plug assay which did not require the extraction of secondary metabolites. Two different growth media namely; PDA and CMA was used. Based on optimization testing, the fungi grown on PDA demonstrated better antibacterial activity compared to the same fungi grown on CMA. In accordance to Moss, (1984) and Jennings, (1995), PDA has been characterized as a simple media suitable for the production of fungal secondary metabolites. Several studies on bioactive fungal secondary metabolites have also reported the use of PDA as their primary fungal media (Guo *et al.*, 2006; Varughese *et al.*, 2012). Therefore the types of media used can influence the bioactivity exhibited by the fungi in this study.

According to Bhadury *et al.* (2006), the syntheses of most fungal secondary metabolites are modulated by the polyketide synthase (PKS) and nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) pathways. Research has shown that the manipulation in fermentation and post genomic technologies may play a prominent role in the expression of these gene clusters thereby influencing the amount and types of secondary metabolites produced by the fungi (Bhadury *et al.*, 2006). These reports serve to prove that the difference in culture conditions determines the secondary metabolites produced by a fungus.

The culture conditions of the manglicolous fungi were manipulated in terms of, incubation time and shaken or stationary phase for optimization purposes. In this present study, incubation times of 10, 15 and 20 days were experimented for optimization. Based on findings, fungi cultured with an incubation period of 10 days or less displayed no antibacterial activity while an incubation period of 20 days showed neither significant increase nor decrease in antibacterial activity displayed. The results of this optimization are not shown in this write up. Deduke *et al.* (2012) stated that due to the fact that fungal secondary metabolites are not required in primary metabolism, their synthesis may be triggered when the nutrients become limited and growth slows down. After optimization of incubation timing, fungi mycelia and fermentation broth were harvested after 15 days of incubation for secondary metabolite extraction.

In a bid to mimic the physiochemical characteristics of their natural environment, all manglicolous fungi in the present study were grown in broth supplemented with salt at a concentration of 25 parts per million (ppm) similar to the stated salinity of the surroundings from which they were isolated, and incubated under agitation phase. Based on experimental optimization, the ideal culture phase for these fungi was found to be the agitation phase of 100 rpm. A recently report by Kusari *et al.* (2012) stated that altering fermentation parameters such as media type, aeration, temperature, pH, agitation and harvest points may influence the production of biologically active metabolites in fungi. Thereby this may serve as a justification for optimal antibacterial activity display of the fungi when cultured at a salt concentration of 25 ppm and the agitation phase of 100 rpm.

5.6 Antibacterial potential of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

A strain of *S. rhizophorae* was selected from the panel of manglicolous fungi strains used in this study for further chemical analysis of its secondary metabolites. This selection was based on the fact that the crude extract of this fungus displayed activity against five out of the seven test bacteria with promising activity against the Gram negative *E. coli* at a MIC of 500µg/ml. Furthermore all the MIC values recorded by the crude extract of *S. rhizophorae* were 500µg/ml and below suggesting promising antibacterial potential.

Mangrove derived fungi has been a focal point of study since a group of Chinese researchers' isolated numerous significant and new metabolites from this group of fungi (Huang *et al.*, 2008). Li *et al.* (2010) stated that the importance of the mangrove forest on the South China Sea for the discovery of new bioactive chemical compounds as many novel compounds have been reported from this area. The fungi *S. rhizophorae* also originates from the mangrove bordering the South China Sea.

The strain *S. rhizophorae* was isolated from the driftwood of the mangrove tree *Rhizophora apiculata*. Previous studies by Sahoo *et al.* (2009) stated the isolation of the fungi *Clasdosporium herbarum*, *Fusarium moniliforme*, *Cirrenalia basiminuta* and *Halophytophthora vesicular* from the dead leaves of *R.apiculata* with pectinolytic, proteolytic and amylolytic activities. Rukachaisirikil *et al.* (2012) isolated endophytic fungi from *R. apiculata* with antibacterial and antifungal activity. Based on these reports, there may be promising pharmacological potential yet to be fully explored in the fungi found to be associated with *R. apiculata* and that is what this study intends to uncover. Mangrove plants are constantly subjected to the harsh surroundings of the mangrove forest such as high salinity and tidal flushes and thus these plants have been known to have developed special morphological and physiological characteristics as an

adaptation strategy (Wu *et al.*, 2008). Therefore the fungi found to be associated with these plants are also subjected to such harsh and extreme conditions thereby generating the possibility that these fungi may possess the capability to generate certain survival strategies such as secondary metabolites.

In this study we employed small scale cultivation of fungi to obtain their secondary metabolites which led to the isolation of two compounds mainly comprising of fatty acids with antibacterial activities. Numerous studies such as Lin *et al.* (2008), Klaiklay *et al.* (2012), Rukachaisirikul *et al.* (2012) and Amrani *et al.* (2012) have reported the isolation of more than at least five compounds from a single mangrove derived fungi. Therefore the cultivation method used in this study could have led to the small scale of discovery with respect to this study.

According to Bhadury *et al.* (2006), large scale cultivation of marine fungi using bioreactor technologies is crucial to ensure optimal production of important fungal secondary metabolites. The maintenance of standard culture parameters during the entire course of cultivation ensures optimal production of secondary metabolites in terms of quantity and quality. Since the cultivation of fungi in this study was carried out in lab conditions, there could have been slight differences in culture conditions from time to time therefore leading to the discovery of only two major metabolites from *S. rhizophorae*.

The efficacy of antibiotics against bacteria primarily depends on the antimicrobial susceptibility of the bacteria in concern. The MIC values of antibiotics penicillin G and chloramphenicol against test bacteria tabulated against antimicrobial susceptibility interpretive criteria as obtained from The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST), 2013, is showed in Table 5.1. Based on MIC values of penicillin G, all test bacteria except *E.coli* can be characterized as

resistant strains while based on the MIC values of chloramphenicol, *E. coli* is a susceptible strain, *P. aeruginosa* and *E. faecalis* are resistant strains while *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis* and *M. luteus* are intermediate strains. The resistant trait displayed by *P. aeruginosa* and *E. faecalis* may justify the lack of activity exhibited of the pure compounds towards this two bacterial strains. Both linoleic and palmitic acid did not exhibit antibacterial activity towards *E. faecalis* which can be justified due to resistant trait displayed by this bacterium against both chloramphenicol and penicillin G; however the other four Gram positive bacterial strains are characterized as intermediate strains according to the MIC values of chloramphenicol thus rendering them more susceptible to the antibacterial action of the pure compounds.

Table 5.1: Comparison of MIC values of antibiotics against test bacteria towards antimicrobial susceptibility interpretive criteria (adapted from EUCAST, 2013)

Bacteria	Antibiotic	MIC of Test bacteria ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Antimicrobial susceptibility interpretive criteria (values in $\mu\text{g/ml}$)		
			Susceptible	Intermediate	Resistant
<i>S. aureus</i>	Penicillin	3.91	≤ 0.12		≥ 0.25
	Chloramphenicol	31.25	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>E. coli</i>	Penicillin	125	≤ 16	32-64	≥ 128
	Chloramphenicol	7.81	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	Penicillin	≥ 250	≤ 64		≥ 128
	Chloramphenicol	125	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>E. faecalis</i>	Penicillin	≥ 250	≤ 8		≥ 16
	Chloramphenicol	≥ 250	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>B. cereus</i>	Penicillin	62.5	≤ 8		≥ 16
	Chloramphenicol	15.63	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>B. subtilis</i>	Penicillin	62.5	≤ 8		≥ 16
	Chloramphenicol	15.63	≤ 8	16	≥ 32
<i>M. luteus</i>	Penicillin	125	≤ 8		≥ 16
	Chloramphenicol	15.63	≤ 8	16	≥ 32

5.6.1 Bioactive metabolites of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

Most studies on the identification of fungal metabolites such as Huang *et al.* (2006), Isaka *et al.* (2009) and Klaiklay *et al.* (2012), report the use of column chromatography to fractionate the crude fungal extract. However in the present study, solvent partitioning was used to further fractionate the EA crude fungal extract of *S. rhizophorae* (EAS) prior to column chromatography to ease the separation and isolation of the active. Since EA generally extracts out most of the secondary metabolites from the fermentation broth of the fungi, solvents of differing polarities were used to perform a preliminary separation of secondary metabolites based on polarity. Results obtained showed that out of the three fractions, the *n*-hexane (HS) and dichloromethane (DS) fractions exhibited antibacterial activity while the methanol (MS) fraction did not exhibit any antibacterial activity. This concludes that the active compounds in the fungal extract are of lesser polarity thus they are able to dissolve in solvents with lower polarities as the solvents *n*-hexane and dichloromethane are lower in polarity in comparison to the relatively polar solvent methanol.

Based on the display of antibacterial activities, sub-fractions 2 and 3 of the HS fraction were further subjected to separation via multiple TLC profiling which led to the isolation two fatty acids, both eluted using solvent system, *n*-hexane: ethyl acetate, 75:25. The fatty acid *cis*-9, *cis*-12-octadecadenoic acid (linoleic acid), a polyunsaturated fatty acid was isolated from sub-fraction 2 while the other fatty acid, *n*-hexadecanoic acid (palmitic acid) was isolated from sub-fraction 3. Both the fatty acids isolated are long chain fatty acids which are rather non-polar in nature thus justifying why they were isolated from the non-polar HS fraction.

Linoleic acid exhibited antibacterial activity towards *S. aureus* and *B. subtilis* while the sub-fraction from which linoleic acid was derived from exhibited antibacterial

activity against *B. cereus*, *E. faecalis* and *M. luteus*. The exhibition of antibacterial activity by linoleic acid is lower than its unpurified subfraction which could be due to the synergistic effect (Pereira *et al.*, 2014) between linoleic acid and the elements in the unpurified subfraction, thereby increasing the antibacterial effect of the subfraction. This may explain the higher potency of the subfraction in comparison to the pure compound. Palmitic acid exhibited antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis* and *M. luteus* while the subfraction from which palmitic acid was derived from exhibited antibacterial activity only against *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis*. The exhibition of antibacterial activity by palmitic acid was greater than its subfraction which could be due to the antagonistic effect (Oshiro *et al.*, 2008) between palmitic acid and the elements in the unpurified subfraction thereby increasing the antibacterial potency of the purified palmitic acid. This may explain the higher potency of the pure compound in comparison to the unpurified subfraction.

Palmitic acid exhibited antibacterial activity against most of the Gram positive bacterial strains in this study namely; *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *B. subtilis* and *M. luteus*; while linoleic acid exhibited antibacterial activity only against *S. aureus* and *B. subtilis*. The lipo-polysaccharide (LPS) layer of Gram negative bacteria prevents the penetration of hydrophobic oils and their accumulation in the bacterial cell membrane (Bajpai *et al.*, 2013). Thus, since fatty acids are known to be hydrophobic in nature, the selective permeability of the LPS layer can justify the lack of antibacterial activity exhibited by both fatty acids against the Gram negative bacteria used in the present study.

According to Zheng *et al.* (2005), fatty acids have been long used as food additives to prevent and inhibit the growth of microorganisms. Certain fatty acids have been known to display antibacterial activities such as in studies by Huang *et al.* (2011), which reported the antibacterial activity of palmitic acid against oral microorganisms. Even the fatty acid linoleic acid has been reported to possess antibacterial activities

against *S. aureus* in studies by Dilika *et al.* (2000) which is similar to the present study in which linoleic acid displayed an MIC of 0.5mg/ml against *S. aureus*. Furthermore, linoleic acid was found to be able to inhibit the bacterial enoyl-acyl carrier protein reductase which is an important component in bacterial fatty acid synthesis thus also inhibiting the growth of the bacteria. Besides being known for its antibacterial activity, fatty acids have also been explored in the field of cancer drug discovery. A study on metabolites from the marine fungi *Trichoderma* sp. by Kandasamy *et al.* (2012) reported the isolation of linoleic acid which was found to be an inhibitor against skin cancer protein thus providing promising potential for future cancer drug development. Furthermore, linoleic acid is polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) which is an essential lipid in human health and nutrition. Fish oils are the main marine source of PUFA, however in a bid to reduce the cost of production, microorganisms are now being explored as sources for the alternative production of PUFA to (Ruiz *et al.*, 2007). The study by Ruiz *et al.* (2007) is similar to the present study which saw the isolation of linoleic acid from the marine derived fungi *Trichoderma longibrachiatum*.

Linoleic acid and palmitic acid are also known to be common fatty acid constituents in essential oils (Tang *et al.*, 2013). Linoleic acid especially is the second major fatty acid after oleic acid in argan oil (Benzaria *et al.*, 2006). The composition of 44.8% oleic acid and 33.7% of linoleic acid in argan oil has been proven to possess nutritional benefits in the reduction of atherosclerosis consequently preventing occurrences of cardiovascular diseases in humans (Cherki *et al.*, 2006). Studies by Cherki *et al.* (2006) have stated that linoleic acid, an essential acid that cannot be synthesized by the human body, is a precursor for the synthesis of arachidonic acid which is a precursor of prostaglandin E1, prostacyclin and thromboxane; all of which are known to possess platelet anti-aggregator and vasodilator activities thereby justifying the anti-hypertensive effect of linoleic acid. Arachidonic acid by itself is

known for its hypocholesterolemic effect thus being the reason why oils rich in arachidonic acid derived fatty acids particularly linoleic acid are recommended to reduce total cholesterol (Cherki *et al.*, 2006). Linoleic acid and palmitic acid are also the second major fatty acid component after oleic acid in olive oil with linoleic acid at 5.3-21.0% and palmitic acid at 7.5-20.0% (Mendoza *et al.*, 2013). Olive oil is one of the most commonly consumed cooking oils in Mediterranean countries mainly due to its health benefits especially in prevention of cardiovascular diseases, a similar trait observed in argan oil (Maggio *et al.*, 2009). Palmitic acid, being a saturated fatty acid holds less nutritional values in comparison to the unsaturated omega-6 linoleic acid thus justifying as to why food oils higher in linoleic acid is commonly proven beneficial (Benzaria *et al.*, 2006).

The demand for fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) as diesel fuel (biodiesel) is on the rise due to the instability of petroleum prices (Vicente *et al.*, 2009). Biodiesel is fast becoming the favoured alternative choice of fuel in comparison with conventional diesel fuels especially in countries such as European Union, America, Australia, Japan, China, and Malaysia among others (Zhu *et al.*, 2008). Fatty acids are known to be ubiquitously found in most living organisms such as animals and plants. Although vegetable oils and animal fats are the main sources of fatty acids but their sustainability is mostly environmental dependant and varies with climates and seasons, thus forcing scientist to explore alternative sources of fatty acids in order to meet the demands of the biodiesel industry (Zhu *et al.*, 2008; Khot *et al.*, 2012). Currently lipids from oleaginous microorganisms may prove to possess significant potential as feedstock for biodiesel production as its resource requirements are basic and therefore may prove economical (Zhu *et al.*, 2008).. Microalgae have been known to be the most prolific source for fatty acids among all microorganisms (Dominguez *et al.*, 2012).

The production of fatty acids by fungi and its application have been studied since the late nineteenth century and fungi have also been known to be good producers of commercially important fatty acids (De *et al.*, 2011). For instance, the fungus *Mucor circinelloides* produces large quantities of fatty acids thus making it a suitable candidate for large scale commercial production (Vicente *et al.*, 2009). Although there have been not as many reports of marine derived fungi as potential producers of fatty acids, Table 5.2 shows several selected marine derived fungi strains reported as significant producers of the same fatty acids as reported in the present study.

Table 5.2: Research done on selected marine derived fungi leading to the isolation of similar fatty acids as in the present study

Fungi	Fatty acids	Reference
<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	Linoleic acid	Kandasamy <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Orpinomyces</i> sp.	Palmitic acid	Comlekcioglu <i>et al.</i> (2010)
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	Linoleic acid	Wang <i>et al.</i> (2010)
<i>Mortierella alpina</i>	Linoleic acid	Sakuradani <i>et al.</i> (2009)
<i>Ceriporiopsis subvermispora</i>	Linoleic & palmitic acid	Enoki <i>et al.</i> (1999)
<i>Hypoxylon</i> sp.	Linoleic acid	Le <i>et al.</i> (1999)
<i>Arthrotrys conoides</i>	Linoleic acid	Anke <i>et al.</i> (1995)
<i>Annulohypoxylon squamulosum</i>	Palmitic acid	Cheng <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Alternaria</i> sp. M6	Palmitic acid	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Gliomastix murorum</i> & <i>Pichia guilliermondii</i>	Palmitic acid	Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2009)
<i>Chaetomium fusiforme</i>	Palmitic acid	Guo <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Cunninghamella echinulata</i>	Linoleic acid	Fakas <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Leccinum extremiorientale</i>	Palmitic acid	Gao <i>et al.</i> (2003)
<i>Julella avicenniae</i>	Palmitic acid	Le <i>et al.</i> (1998)
<i>Clitocybe laccata</i> , <i>Lactarius controversus</i> , <i>Phellinus pomaceus</i> , <i>Stereum hirsutum</i>	Palmitic & linoleic acid	Senatore <i>et al.</i> (1988)

5.7 Improvisations with respect to the present study and suggestions for future work

- The endophytic fungi strains in the present study were identified based on the sequence of only one gene (ITS) whereby some fungal strains were only identified to genus level. Therefore future work should adopt multi-gene analysis to improvise the accuracy in identifying the endophytic fungi and also to conduct phylogenetic studies of endophytic fungi found in the two marine associated plants in the study.
- The present study focused on endophytic fungi that were able to grow in given laboratory conditions. Proposed future work should focus also on the non-culturable endophytic fungi strains from the given plants.
- The present study only involved the chemical analysis of *S. rhizophorae* secondary metabolites. Therefore future work should focus on the other fungi strains especially the endophytic fungi strains that displayed promising antibacterial activities in the broth microdilution assay.
- Studies by Ramos *et al.* (2011), Sood, (2011) and Kang *et al.* (2013) have reported differing production of secondary metabolites with respect to varying culture conditions. In the present study, culture conditions were manipulated only in accordance to basic experimental optimization. Therefore further studies should involve systematic manipulation of culture conditions to obtain standard curves of varying culture conditions in relation to secondary metabolite profiles.
- In the bioassay guided fractionation, only the HS fraction was purified which led to the isolation the linoleic acid and palmitic acid. The DS fraction exhibited significant antibacterial activity mainly against the Gram positive bacteria strains. However the dichloromethane fraction could not be further purified due to small amount of the fraction. Thus future work should focus on the large scale

cultivation and extraction of fungal crude extract to ensure complete isolation and analysis of their secondary metabolite profiles including minor compounds.

- This is a bioassay-guided fractionation study therefore the inactive fractions of the *S. rhizophorae* extract were not purified. Thus future studies should also focus on inactive fractions and sub-fractions; this is because although the fractions and sub-fractions may be inactive, there may be metabolites present that may possess activity in its purified form.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The diversity of endophytic fungi in the marine associated plants *Ipomoea pes-caprae* and *Vitex rotundifolia* is noteworthy. Twenty-one endophytic fungi strains were isolated from *I. pes-caprae* comprising of fifteen genus/species. As for *V. rotundifolia*, thirteen endophytic fungi strains were isolated and identified comprising of eight genus or species. Certain endophytic fungi such as *Bipolaris* sp., *Guignardia mangiferae* and *Phoma* sp., are known plant pathogens thus suggesting that they may not be exclusively pathogenic but may have evolved into a symbiotic relationship with the plant. Endophytic fungi have long been associated with the production of pharmacologically active metabolites which is supported by the findings of this study. Ten and five of the endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* and *V. rotundifolia* respectively exhibited antibacterial activity against the test bacteria in the study. However the majority of the endophytic fungi strains were active against Gram positive bacteria with only 11.76% of all fungi strains active against Gram negative bacteria. As suggested by hypothesis on the influence of the place of collection and ethobotanical significance of a plant on the bioactivities exhibited by their endophytic fungi, the antibacterial activities displayed by the fungi strains from *I. pes-caprae* were broader spectrum. A total of five endophytic fungi were chosen for further analysis through the broth microdilution assay and strains such as *Bipolaris* sp. (HQ631009.1) from *I. pes-caprae* and *Paecilomyces* sp. from *V. rotundifolia* exhibited the strongest antibacterial potential with the lowest MIC values.

The manglicolous fungi in the study exhibited moderate antibacterial activities overall with the majority of them active against the Gram positive test bacteria; a trait common to that displayed by the endophytic fungi in the present study. Out of the eleven manglicolous fungi, ten or 90.9% of them exhibited antibacterial

activity. However out of this 90.9%, only 20% were active against Gram negative bacteria. The results obtained from the preliminary plug assay were in sync with those obtained from the broth microdilution assay.

The chemical elucidation of metabolites from the crude extract of *Saccardoella rhizophorae* revealed the presence of fatty acids linoleic acid and palmitic acid. These fatty acids although considered ubiquitous and simple, may prove beneficial as important constituents of essential oils and also possesses nutritional values as suggested by the role of linoleic acid in particular. Besides this, the fungal strain *S. rhizophorae* may prove to be a potential candidate to be explored for its role in the sustainable production of raw materials for biodiesel fuel.

REFERENCES

- Abdel-Lateff, A. (2008). Chaetominedione, a new tyrosine kinase inhibitor isolated from the algicolous marine fungus *Chaetomium* sp. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 49, pp 6398–6400.
- Abraham, S. P., Hoang, T. D., Alam, M. and Jones, E. B. G. (1994). Chemistry of the cytotoxicity principles of the marine fungus *Lignincola laevis*. *Pure and Applied Chemistry*, 66, pp 2391-2394.
- Afiyatullo, S.S., Kuznetsova, T.A., Isakov, V.V., Pivkin, M.V., Prokof'eva, N.G., Elyakov, G.B. (2000). New diterpenic altrosides of the fungus *Acremonium striatisporum* isolated from a sea cucumber. *Journal of Natural Products*, 63, pp 848-850.
- Afiyatullo, S.S., Zhuravleva, O.I., Chaikina, E.L., Anisimov, M.M. (2012). A new spirotryprostatin from the marine isolate of the fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *Chemistry of Natural Compounds*, 48(1).
- Agusa, T., Kunito, T., Yasunaga, G., Iwata, H., Subramaniam, A., Ismail, A., Tanabe, S. (2005). Concentrations of trace elements in marine fish and its risk assessment in Malaysia. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 51, pp 896-911.
- Amagata, T., Minoura, K., Numata, A. (1998). Gymnasterones, novel cytotoxic metabolites produced by a fungal strain from a sponge. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 39, pp 3773-3774.
- Amagata, T., Minoura, K., Numata, A. (2006). Gymnastatins F-H, cytostatic metabolites from the sponge-derived fungus *Gymnascella dankaliensis*. *Journals of Natural Products*, 69, pp 1384-1388.
- Amagata, T., Tanaka, M., Yamada, T., Minoura, K., Numata, A. (2008). Gymnastatins and Dankastatins, growth inhibitory metabolites of a *Gymnascella* Species from a *Halichondria* sponge. *Journal of Natural Products*, 71, pp 340-345.
- Amrani, M.E., Debbab, A., Aly, A.H., Wray, V., Dobretsov, S., Muller, W.E.G., Lin, W., Lai, D., Proksch, P. (2012). Farinomalein derivatives from an unidentified endophytic fungus isolated from the mangrove plant *Avicennia marina*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 53, pp 6721-6724.
- Anderson, I.C., Parkin, P.I. (2007). Detection of active soil fungi by RT-PCR amplification of precursor rRNA molecules. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 68, pp 248-253.
- Anke, H., Stadler, M., Mayer, A., Sterner, O. (1995). Secondary metabolites with nematocidal and antimicrobial activity from nematophagous fungi and Ascomycetes. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, 73, pp 932-939.

Altuntas, F., Yildiz, O., Eser, B., Gundagon, K., Sumerkan, B., Cetin, M. (2004). Catheter-related bacterimia due to *Kocuria rosea* in a patient undergoing peripheral blood stem cell transplantation. *BioMed Central Infectious Diseases*, 4(62), doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-4-62.

Arfi, Y., Marchand, C., Wartel, M., Record, E. (2012). Fungal diversity in anoxic-sulfidic sediments in a mangrove soil. *Fungal Ecology*, 5, pp 282-285.

Arnold, A.E. (2007). Understanding the diversity of foliar endophytic fungi: progress, challenges and frontiers. *Fungal Biology Reviews*, 21, pp 51-66.

Arunpanichlert, J., Rukachaisirikul, V., Tadpetch, K., Phongpaichit, S., Towatana, N.H., Supaphon, O., Sakayaroj, J. (2012). A dimeric chromanone and a phthalide: Metabolites from the seagrass derived fungus *Bipolaris* sp. PSU-ES64. *Phytochemistry Letters*, 5, pp 604-608.

Bajpai, V.K., Sharma, A., Baek, K.H. (2013). Antibacterial mode of action of *Cudrania tricuspidata* fruit essential oil, affecting membrane permeability and surface characteristics of food-borne pathogens. *Food Control*, 32, pp 582-590.

Beena, K.R., Ananda, K., Sridhar, K.R. (2000). Fungal endophytes of three sand dune plant species of west coast of India. *Sydowia*, 52(10), pp 1-9.

Bennett, J.W. (1998). Mycotechnology: the role of fungi in biotechnology. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 66, pp 101-107.

Benzaria, A., Meskini, N., Dubois, M., Croset, M., Némoz, G., Lagarde, M., Prigent, A.F. (2006). Effect of dietary argan oil on fatty acid composition, proliferation, and phospholipase D activity of rat thymocytes. *Nutrition*, 22, pp 628-637.

Berkov, S., Mutafova, B., Christen, P. (2014). Molecular biodiversity and recent analytical developments: A marriage of convenience. *Biotechnology Advances*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2014.04.005>.

Bhadury, P., Mohammad, B.T., Wright, P.C. (2006). The current status of natural products from marine fungi and their potential as anti-infective agents. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 33, pp 325-337.

Bhatnagar, I., Kim, S.K. (2012). Pharmacologically prospective antibiotic agents and their sources: A marine microbial perspective. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 34, pp 631-643.

Bhimba, B.V., Franco, D.A.A.D., Jose, G.M., Mathew, J.M., Joel, E.L. (2011). Characterization of cytotoxic compound from the mangrove derived fungi *Irpex hydnoides* VB4. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, pp 223-236.

Bilavsky, E., Pfeffer, I., Tarabeia, J., Schechner, V., Hanna, J.A., Soen, G.G., Schwartz, D., Venezia, S.N., Carmeli, Y. (2013). Outbreak of multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection following urodynamic studies traced to contaminated transducer. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 83, pp 344-346.

- Blackwell, M. (2011). The fungi: 1, 2, 3 ... 5.1 million species? *American Journal of Botany*, 98(3), pp 426-438.
- Bonkat, G., Muller, G., Rieken, M., Frel, R., Widmer, A.F., Feicke, A., Wyler, S., Rentsch, C.A., Mundorff, N.E., Subotic, S., Gasser, T.C., Bachmann, A. (2011). Epidemiology of urinary tract infections caused by extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) producing pathogens at a tertiary care Swiss university hospital. *The Journal of Urology*, 185, pp 545.
- Borges, W.S., Borges, K.B., Bonato, P.S., Said, S., Pupo, M.T. (2009). Endophytic Fungi: Natural Products, Enzymes and Biotransformation Reactions. *Current Organic Chemistry*, 13, pp 1137-1163.
- Bridier, A., Vizuete, M.P.S., Coq, D.L., Aymerich, S., Meylheuc, T., Maillard, J.Y., Thomas, V., Brissonnet, F.D., Briandet, R. (2012). Biofilms of a *Bacillus subtilis* hospital isolate protect *Staphylococcus aureus* from biocide action. *PLoS ONE*, 7(9): e44506. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0044506.
- Bringmann, G., Lang, G., Gulder, T.A.M., Tsuruta, H., Mühlbacher, J., Maksimenka, K., Steffens, S., Schaumann, K., Stöhr, R., Wiese, J., Imhoff, J.F., Ottstadt, S.P., Boreiko, O., Müller, W.E.G. (2005). The first sorbicillinoid alkaloids, the antileukemic sorbicillactones A and B, from a sponge-derived *Penicillium chrysogenum* strain. *Tetrahedron*, 61, pp 7252-7265.
- Bringmann, G., Lang, G., Bruhn, T., Schaffler, K., Steffens, S., Schmaljohann, R., Wiese, J., Imhoff, J.F. (2010). Sorbifuranones A-C, sorbicillinoid metabolites from *Penicillium* strains isolated from Mediterranean sponges. *Tetrahedron*, 66, pp 9894-9901.
- Buatong, J., Phongpaichit, S., Rukachaisirikul, V., Sakayaroj, J. (2011). Antimicrobial activity of crude extracts from mangrove fungal endophytes. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 27, 3005-3008.
- Buee, M., Reich, M., Murat, C., Morin, E., Nilsson, R.H., Uroz, S., Martin, F. (2009). 454 Pyrosequencing analyses of forest soils reveal an unexpectedly high fungal diversity. *New Phytology*, 184, pp 449-456.
- Bugni, T.S., Ireland, C.M. (2004). Marine-derived fungi: a chemically and biologically diverse group of microorganisms. *Natural Product Reports*, 21, pp 143-163.
- Caballero, M.G., Beffa, M.M., Canedo, L., Medina, M.A., Quesada, A.R. (2013). Toluquinol, a marine fungus metabolite, is a new angiosuppressor that interferes the Akt pathway. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 85, pp 1727-1740.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2013). Healthcare-associated infections (HAIs). Retrieved on 25th June 2013 from <http://www.cdc.gov/HAI/burden.html>.

- Chen, L., Liu, W., Hu, X., Huang, K., Wu, J.L., Zhang, Q.Q. (2011). Citrinin derivatives from the marine-derived fungus *Penicillium citrinum*. *Chemical Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 59(4), pp 515-517.
- Cheng, M.J., Wu, M.D., Yanai, H., Su, Y.S., Chen, I.S., Yuan, G.F., Hsieh, S.Y., Chen, J.J. (2012). Secondary metabolites from the endophytic fungus *Biscogniauxia formosa* and their antimycobacterial activity. *Phytochemistry Letters*, 5, pp 467-472.
- Cherki, M., Berrougui, H., Drissi, A., Adlouni, A., Khalil, A. (2006). Argan oil: Which benefits on cardiovascular diseases? *Pharmacological Research*, 54, pp 1-5.
- Chinworrungsee, M., Kittakoop, P., Isaka, M., Rungrod, A., Tanticharoen, M. and Thebtaranonth, Y. (2001). Antimalarial Halorosellinic acid from the marine fungus *Halorosellinia oceanica*. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 11, pp 1965-1969.
- Chinworrungsee, M., Kittakoop, P., Isaka, M., Chanphen, R., Tanticharoen, M. and Thebtaranonth, Y. (2002). Halorosellins A and B, unique isocoumarin glucosides from the marine fungus *Halorosellinia oceanica*. *Journal of Chemical Society Perkin Transaction I*, 22, pp 2473-2476.
- Comlekcioglu, U., Ozkose, E., Yazdic, F.C., Akyol, I., Ekinici, M.S. (2010). Polysaccharidase and glycosidase production of avicel grown rumen fungus *Orpinomyces* sp. GMLF5. *Acta Biologica Hungarica*, 61(3), pp 333-343.
- Cribb, A.B., Cribb, J.W. (1955). Marine fungi from Queensland. I. Papers, *University of Queensland Department Botanica*, 3, pp 78-81.
- Cui, C.M., Li, X.M., Li, C.S., Proksch, P., Wang, B.G. (2010). Cytoglobosins A-G, cytochalasans from a marine-derived endophytic fungus *Chaetomium globosum* QEN-14. *Journal of Natural Products*, 73, pp 729-733.
- Davidson, B. S. (1995). New dimensions in natural products research: cultured marine microorganisms. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 6, pp 284-291.
- De, B.K., Verma, S. (2011). Characterization of lipids and fatty acids of the soil derived fungus *Cladosporium* sp. *Grasas Y Aceites*, 62(2), ISSN: 0017-3495, doi: 103989/gya.090910, pp 213-220.
- Debbab, A., Aly, A.H., Proksch, P. (2011). Bioactive secondary metabolites from endophytes and associated marine derived fungi. *Fungal Diversity*, 49, pp 1-12.
- Debbab, A., Aly, A.H., Proksch P. (2013). Mangrove derived fungal endophytes-a chemical and biological perception. *Fungal Diversity*, 61, pp 1-27.

Deduke, C., Timsina, B., Normore, M.D.P. (2012). Effect of environmental change on secondary metabolite production in lichen-forming fungi. International perspectives on global environmental change, Dr. Stephen Young (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-307-815-1, InTech, Retrieved on 14th May 2013 from: <http://www.intechopen.com/books/international-perspectives-on-global-environmental-change/effect-of-environmental-change-on-secondary-metabolite-production-in-lichen-forming-fungi>.

Devall, M.S. (1992). The Biological Flora of Coastal Dunes and Wetlands. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 8(2), pp 442-456.

Dias, D.A., Urban, S., Roessner, U. (2012). A historical overview of natural products in drug discovery. *Metabolites*, 2, pp 303-336.

Dick, M.W. (1997). Fungi, flagella and phylogeny. *Mycological Research*, 101(4), pp 385-394.

Dilika, F., Bremner, P.D., Meyer, J.J.M. (2000). Antibacterial activity of linoleic and oleic acids isolated from *Helichrysum pedunculatum*: a plant used during circumcision rites. *Fitoterapia*, 71, pp 450-452.

Ding, L., Qin, S., Li, F., Chi, X., Laatsch, H. (2008). Isolation, antimicrobial activity and metabolites of fungus *Cladosporium* sp. associated with Red Alga *Porphyra yezoensis*. *Current Microbiology*, 56, pp 229-235.

Du, X., Lu, C., Li, Y., Zheng, Z., Su, W., Shen, Y. (2008). Three new antimicrobial metabolites of *Phomopsis* sp. *Journal of Antibiotic*, 61, pp 250–253.

Du, F.Y., Li, X.M., Li, C.S., Shang, Z., Wang, B.G. (2012). Cristatumins A-D, new indole alkaloids from the marine-derived endophytic fungus *Eurotium cristatum* EN-220. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 22, pp 4650-4653.

Dubouix, A., Bonnet, E., Alvarez, M., Bensafi, H., Archambaud, M., Chaminade, B., Chabanon, G., Marty, N. (2005). *Bacillus cereus* infections in Traumatology-Orthopaedics Department: retrospective investigation and improvement of healthcare practices. *Journal of Infection*, 50, pp 22-30.

Domig, K.J., Mayrhofer, S., Zitz, U., Mair, C., Petersson, A., Amtmann, E., Mayer, H.K., Kneifel, W. (2007). Antibiotic susceptibility testing of *Bifidobacterium thermophilum* and *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* strains: Broth microdilution vs. agar disc diffusion assay. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 120, pp 191-195.

Dominguez, L.A., Urbina, E.C., Jimenez, A.M., Ortiz, C.M.F., Leal, E.R., Garcia, F.J.E., Noyola, M.T.P., Valardo, H.M.P. (2012). Polyunsaturated fatty acids in bacteria, algae and fungi-A review. *Environmental Engineering and Management Journal*, 11(3), supplement, S100.

- Dou, H., Song, Y., Liu, X., Gong, W., Li, E., Tan, R., Hou, Y. (2011). Chaetoglobosin Fex from the marine-derived endophytic fungus inhibits induction of inflammatory mediators via toll-like receptor 4 signalling in macrophages. *Biological & Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 34(12), pp 1864-1873.
- Duarte, K., Rocha-Santos, T.A.P., Freitas, A.C., Duarte, A.C. (2012). Analytical techniques for discovery of bioactive compounds from marine fungi. *Trends in Analytical Chemistry*, 34, pp 97-110.
- Ebel, R. (2012). Natural products from marine-derived fungi. In: (Jones, E.B.G., & Pang, K.L eds.). *Marine Fungi and Fungal like Organisms*. Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin/Boston. pp, 411-440.
- Ebel, R. (2010). Terpenes from marine-derived fungi. *Marine Drugs*, 8, pp 2340-2368.
- Eloff, J.N. (1998). A sensitive and quick microplate method to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration of plant extracts for bacteria. *Plant Medica*, 64, pp 711-713.
- Enoki, M., Watanabe, T., Nakagame, S., Koller, K., Messner, K., Honda, Y., Kuwahara, M. (1999). Extracellular lipid peroxidation of selective white-rot fungus. *Ceriporiopsis subvermispora*. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 180, pp 205-211.
- European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST). (2013). Version 3.1, pp 1-8 Retrieved on 20th May 2013 from http://www.eucast.org/fileadmin/src/media/PDFs/EUCAST_files/Breakpoint_tables/Breakpoint_table_v_3.1.pdf.
- Ezra, D., Hess, W. M., Strobel, G. A. (2004). New endophytic isolates of *Muscodor albus*, a volatile-antibiotic producing fungus. *Microbiology*, 150, pp 4023-4031.
- Fakas, S., Certik, M., Papanikolaou, S., Aggelis, G., Komaitis, M., Panayotou, M.G. (2008). γ -Linoleic acid production by *Cunninghamella echinulata* growing on complex organic nitrogen sources. *Bioresource Technology*, 99(13), pp 5986-5990.
- Fautin, D.G. (2012). Marine biodiversity: The benthos. *Biology International*, 51, pp 36-48.
- Feng, P. (2012). Chapter: *Escherichia coli* (ETEC, EPEC, EHEC, EIEC). *Bad Bug Book-Foodborne Pathogenic Microorganisms and Natural Toxins* (2nd Edition). Retrieved on 19th August 2013 from <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Food/FoodborneIllnessContaminants/UCM297627.pdf>.
- Gadepalli, R., Dhawan, B., Kapil, A., Sreenivas, V., Jais, M., Gaiind, R., Chaudhry, R., Samantaray, J.C., Udo, E.E. (2009). Clinical and molecular characteristics of nosocomial methicillin-resisatant *Staphylococcus aureus* skin and soft tissue isolated from three Indian hospitals. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 73, pp 253-263.
- Gallardo, G.L., Butler, M., Gallo, M.L., Rodriguez, M.A., Eberlin, M.N., Cabrera, G.M. (2006). Antimicrobial metabolites produced by an intertidal *Acremonium furcatum*. *Phytochemistry*, 67, pp 2403-2410.

- Gao, J., Jie, S., Anling, Z., Wei, Z., Xin, Z., Jikai, L. (2003). Chemical constituents of the fungus *Leccinum extremiorientale*. *Chinese Journal of Organic Chemistry*, 23(8), pp 853-857.
- Gao, S.S., Li, X.M., Zhang, Y., Li, C.S., Cui, C.M., Wang, B.G. (2011). Comazaphilones A-F, azaphilone derivatives from the marine sediment-derived fungus *Penicillium commune* QSD-17. *Journal of Natural Products*, 74, pp 256-261.
- Gao, S.S., Li, X.M., Zhang, Y., Li, C.S., Wang, B.G. (2011). Conidiogenones H and I, two new diterpenes of Cyclopiane class from a marine-derived endophytic fungus *Penicillium chrysogenum* QEN-24S. *Chemistry & Biodiversity*, 8(9), pp 1748-1753, doi: 10.1002/cbdv.201000378.
- Garcia, A., Rhoden, S.A., Bernardi, W.J., Orlandelli, R., Azevedo, J.L., Pamphile, J.A. (2012). Antimicrobial activity of crude extracts of endophytic fungi isolated from medicinal plant *Sapindus saponaria* L. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*, 2(10), pp 35-40.
- Ghosh, S., Indukuri, K., Bondalapati, S., Saikia, A.K., Rangan, L. (2013). Unveiling the mode of action of antibacterial labdane diterpenes from *Alpinia nigra* (Gaertn.) B.L. Burt seeds. *European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 66, pp 101-105.
- Gil, R.G., Gomez, M.P.R., Arias, A.G., Ubeda, M.G., Busselo, M.S., Cisterna, R., Altes, A.G., Mingorance, J. (2009). Nosocomial outbreak of linezolid-resistant *Enterococcus faecalis* infection in a tertiary care hospital. *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease*, 65, pp 175-179.
- Goldring, W.P.D., Pattenden, G. (2006). The Phomactins. A novel group of terpenoid platelet activating factor antagonists related biogenetically to the taxanes. *Accounts of Chemical Research*, 39, pp 354-361.
- Gomes, N.M., Bessa, L.J., Buttachon, S., Costa, P.M., Buaruang, J., Dethoup, T., Silva, A.M.S., Kijjoa, A. (2014). Antibacterial and antibiofilm activities of tryptoquivalines and meroditerpenes isolated from the marine-derived fungi *Neosartorya paulistensis*, *N. laciniosa*, *N. tsunodae*, and the soil fungi *N. fischeri* and *N. siamensis*. *Marine Drugs*, 12(2), pp 822-839.
- Grundmann, H., Klugman, K.P., Walsh, T., Pardo, P.R., Sigauque, B., Khan, W., Laxminarayan, R., Heddini, A., Stelling, J. (2011). A framework for global surveillance of antibiotic resistance. *Drug Resistance Updates*, 14, pp 79-87.
- Gul, W., Hamann, M.T. (2005). Indole alkaloid marine natural products: An established source of cancer drug leads with considerable promise for the control of parasitic, neurological and other diseases. *Life Science*, 78, pp 442-453.
- Guo, L.D., Huang, G.R., Wang, Y., He, W.H., Zheng, W.H., Hyde, K.D. (2003). Molecular identification of white morphotype strains of endophytic fungi from *Pinus tabulaeformis*. *Mycological Research*, 107(6), pp 680-688.

Guo, B.H., Wang, Y.C., Zhou, X.W., Hu, K., Tan, F., Miao, Z.Q., Tang, K.X. (2006). An endophytic Taxol-producing fungus BT2 isolated from *Taxus chinensis* var. *mairei*. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 5, pp 875-877.

Guo, L., Wu, J., Han, T., Cao, T., Rahman, K., Qin, L. (2008). Chemical composition, antifungal and antitumor properties of ether extracts of *Scapania verrucosa* Heeg. and its endophytic fungus *Chaetomium fusiforme*. *Molecules*, 13(9), pp 2114-2125, doi:10.3390/molecules13092114.

Guo, S., Mao, W., Li, Y., Tian, J., Xu, J. (2012). Structural elucidation of the exopolysaccharide produced by fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* Y24-2. *Carbohydrate Research*, 365, pp 9-13.

Haefner, B. (2003). Drugs from the deep: marine natural products as drug candidates. *Drug Discovery Today*, 8(12).

Hansen, E.H., Albertsen, L., Schafer, T., Johansen, C., Frisvad, J.C., Molin, S., Gram, L. (2003). *Curvularia* Haloperoxidase: Antimicrobial activity and potential application as a surface disinfectant. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 69(8), pp4611-4617.

Hait, J. (2012). Chapter: *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Bad Bug Book-Foodborne Pathogenic Microorganisms and Natural Toxins* (2nd Edition). Retrieved on 19th August 2013 from <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Food/FoodborneIllnessContaminants/UCM297627.pdf>.

Han, Z., Mei, W., Zhao, Y., Deng, Y., Dai, H. (2009). A new cytotoxic isocoumarine from endophytic fungus *Penicillium* SP. 091402 of the mangrove plant. *Chemistry of Natural Compounds*, 45(6), pp 805-808.

Hawksworth, D.L., Wiltshire, P.E.J. (2011). Forensic mycology: the use of fungi in criminal investigations. *Forensic Science International*, 206, pp 1-11.

Hoffman, A.M., Mayer, S.G., Strobel, G.A., Hess, W.M., Sovocool, G.W., Grange, A.H., Harper, J.K., Arif, A.M., Grant, D.M., Swift, E.G.K. (2008). Purification, identification and activity of phomodione, a furandione from an endophytic *Phoma* species. *Phytochemistry* 69, pp 1049-1056.

Ho, M.Y., Chung, W.C., Huang, H.C., Chung, W.H., Chung, W.H. (2012). Identification of endophytic fungi of medicinal herbs of Lauraceae and Rutaceae with antimicrobial property. *Taiwania*, 57(3), pp 229-241.

Hooley, P., Whitehead, M. (2006). The genetics and molecular biology of marine fungi. *Mycologist*, 20, pp 144-151.

Hoskisson, P. A., Hobbs, G., Sharples, G. P. (2001). Antibiotic production, accumulation of intracellular carbon reserves, and sporulation in *Micromonospora echinospora* (ATCC 15837). *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, 47, pp 148–152.

- Huang, H.R., Xia, X.K., She, Z.G., Lin, Y.C., Vrijmoed, L.L.P., Jones, E.B.G. (2006). A new chloro-monoterpene from the mangrove endophytic fungus *Tryblidiopycnis* sp. (4275). *Journal of Asian Natural Products Research*, 8(7), pp 609-612.
- Huang, C.B., Alimova, Y., Myers, T.M., Ebersole, J.L. (2011). Short and medium chain fatty acids exhibit antimicrobial activity for oral microorganisms. *Archives of Oral Biology*, 56, pp 650-654.
- Hyde, K.D. (1990). A comparison of the intertidal mycota of five mangrove tree species. *Asian Marine Biology*, 7, pp 93-107.
- Imhoff, J.F., Labes, A., Wiese, J. (2011). Bio-mining the microbial treasures of the ocean: New natural products. *Biotechnology Advances*, 29, pp 468-482.
- Inweregbu, K., Dave, J., Pittard, A. (2005). Nosocomial infections. Continuing education in Anaesthesia, *Critical Care and Pain*, 5.
- Isaka, M., Suyarnsestakorn, C., Tanticharoen, M., Kongsaree, P., Thebtaranonth, Y. (2002). Aigialomycins A-E, new resorcyclic macrolides from the marine mangrove fungus *Aigialus parvus*. *Journal of Organic Chemistry*, 67(5), pp 1561-1566.
- Isaka, M., Yangchun, A., Intamas, S., Kocharin, K., Jones, E.B.G., Kongsaree, P., Prabpai, S. (2009). Aigialomycins and related polyketide metabolites from the mangrove fungus *Aigialus parvus* BCC 5311. *Tetrahedron*, 65, pp 4396-4403.
- Iversen, B.G., Brantsaeter, A.B., Aavitsland, P. (2008). Nationwide study of invasive *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection in Norway: Importance of underlying disease. *Journal of Infection*, 57, pp 139-146.
- Iwatsuki, M., Ishimori, T., Yamamoto, T., Takata, K., Mori, M., Nonaka, K., Masuma, R., Hayakawa, Y., Hanaki, H., Shiomi, K., Omura, S. (2011). Biverlactones A-D, new circumventors of arbekacin resistance in MRSA, produced by *Penicillium* sp. FKI-4429. *Tetrahedron*, 67, pp 6644-6648.
- Jennings, D. H. (1995). The physiology of fungal nutrition. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Jensen, P. R., Fenical, W. (2002). In: Hyde K. D. (ed). Fungi in marine environments. *Fungal Diversity*, 7, Hong Kong, pp 293-315.
- Joel, E.L., Bhimba, B.V. (2013). Evaluation of secondary metabolites from mangrove associated fungi *Meyerozyma guilliermondii*. *Alexandria Journal of Medicine*, 49, pp 189-194.
- Jones, E.B.G. (2008). Bioactive compounds in marine organisms. *Botanica Marina*, 51, pp 161-162.
- Jones, E.B.G., Alias, S.A. (1997). Biodiversity of mangrove fungi. In: (K.D. Hyde ed.). *Diversity of Tropical Micro-fungi*. Hong Kong Univ. Press, Hong Kong. pp, 177-186.

Jones, E.B.G., S.J. Stanley and U. Pinruan. 2008. Marine endophyte sources of new chemical natural products: a review. *Botanica marina*, 51: 163-170.

Jones, E.B.G., Pang, K.L. (2012). Introduction Marine fungi. In: (E.B. Gareth Jones, Ka-Lai Pang eds.). *Marine Fungi and Fungal like Organisms*. Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin/Boston. pp, 1-13.

Joo, E.J., Chung, D.R., Ha, Y.E., Park, S.Y., Kang, S.J., Kim, S.H., Kang, C.I., Peck, K.R., Lee, N.Y., Ko, K.S., Song, J.H. (2012). Community-associated Pantone-Valentine leukocidin-negative methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clone (ST71-MRSA-IV) causing healthcare-associated pneumonia and surgical site infection in Korea. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 81, pp 149-155.

Jorgensen, J.H., Ferraro, M.J. (2009). Antimicrobial susceptibility testing: A review of general principles and contemporary practices. *Clinical Infectious Disease*, 49, pp 1749-1755.

Julianti, E., Oh, H., Jang, K.H., Lee, J.K., Lee, S.K., Oh, D.C., Oh, K.B., Shin, J. (2011). Acremostictin, a highly oxygenated metabolite from the marine fungus *Acremonium strictum*. *Journal of Natural Products*, 74, pp 2592-2594.

Julianti, E., Oh, H., Lee, H.S., Oh, D.C., Oh, K.B., Shin, J. (2012). Acremolin, a new 1H-azirine metabolite from the marine-derived fungus *Acremonium strictum*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 53, pp 2885-2886.

Kandasamy, S., Sahu, S.K., Kandasamy, K. (2012). In silico studies of fungal metabolite against skin cancer protein (4,5-Diarylisoaxazole HSP90 Chaperone. *ISRN Dermatology*, Volume 2012, Article ID 626214. Retrieved on 16th July from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5402/2012/626214>.

Kang, D., Son, G.H., Park, H.M., Kim, J., Choi, J.N., Kim, H.Y., Lee, S., Hong, S.B., Lee, C.H. (2013). Culture condition dependent metabolite profiling of *Aspergillus fumigatus* with antifungal activity. *Fungal Biology*, pp 1-9.

Kanoh, K., Adachi, K., Matsuda, S., Shizuri, Y., Yasumoto, K., Kusumi, T., Okumura, K., Kirikae, T. (2008a). New Sulfoalkylresorcinol from marine-derived fungus, *Zygosporium* sp. KNC52. *Journal of Antibiotic*, 61, pp 192–194.

Kanoh, K., Okada, A., Adachi, K., Imagawa, H., Nishizawa, M., Matsuda, S., Shizuri, Y., Utsumi, R. (2008b). Ascochytatin, a novel bioactive spirodioxynaphthalene metabolite produced by the marine-derived fungus, *Ascochyta* sp. NGB4. *Journal of Antibiotic*, 61, pp 142–148.

Kasetrathat, C., Ngamrojanavanich, N., Wiyakrutta, S., Mahidol, C., Ruchirawat, S., Kittakoop, P. (2008). Cytotoxic and antiplasmodial substances from marine-derived fungi, *Nodulisporium* sp. and CRI247-01. *Phytochemistry*, 69, pp 2621–2626.

Kawazoe, K., Yutani, A., Takaishi, Y. (1999). Aryl naphthalenes norlignans from *Vitex rotundifolia*. *Phytochemistry*, 52, pp 1657-1659.

- Khamthong, N., Rukachaisirikul, V., Phongpaichit, S., Preedanon, S., Sakayaroj, J. (2012). Bioactive polyketides from the sea fan-derived fungus *Penicillium citrinum* PSU-F51. *Tetrahedron*, 68, pp 8245-8250.
- Khan, S.A., Hamayun, M., Khan, A.L., Lee, I.J., Shinwari, Z.K., Kim, J.G. (2012). Isolation of plant growth promoting endophytic fungi from dicots inhabiting coastal sand dunes of Korea. *Pakistan Journal of Botany*, 44(4), pp 1453-1460.
- Khot, M., Kamat, S., Zinjarde, S., Pant, A., Chopade, B., Ravikumar, A. (2012). Single cell oil of oleaginous fungi from the tropical mangrove wetlands as a potential feedstock for biodiesel. *Microbial Cell Factories*, 11(71), pp 1-13.
- Kim, M.Y., Sohn, J.H., Jang, J.H., Ahn, J.S., Oh, H. (2012) Two new botcinin derivatives encountered in the studies of secondary metabolites from the marine-derived fungus *Botryotinia* sp. SF-5275. *The Journal of Antibiotics*, 65, pp 161-164.
- Kitano, M., Yamada, T., Amagata, T., Minoura, K., Tanaka, R., Numata, A. (2012). Novel pyridino- α -pyrone sesquiterpene type pileotin produced by a sea urchin-derived *Aspergillus* sp. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 53, pp 4192-4194.
- Kjer, J., Debbab, A., Aly, A.H., Proksch, P. (2010). Methods for isolation of marine-derived endophytic fungi and their bioactive secondary products. *Nature Protocols*, 5(3), pp 479-490.
- Klaiklay, S., Rukachaisirikul, V., Phongpaichit, S., Pakawatchai, C., Saithong, S., Buatong, J., Preedanon, S., Sakayaroj, J. (2012). Anthraquinone derivatives from the mangrove-derived fungus *Phomopsis* sp. PSU-MA214. *Phytochemistry Letters*, 5, 738-742.
- Kohlmeyer, J., Volkmann-Kohlmeyer, B. (1991). Illustrated key to the filamentous higher marine fungi. *Botanica Marina*, 34, pp 1-61.
- Kohlmeyer, J., Volkmann-Kohlmeyer, B. (2003). Fungi from coral reefs: a commentary. *Mycological Research*, 107, pp 386–387.
- Ko, W.G., Kang, T.H., Lee, S.J., Kim, N.Y., Kim, Y.C., Sohn, D.H., Lee, B.H. (2000). Polymethoxyflavonoids from *Vitex rotundifolia* inhibit proliferation by inducing apoptosis in human myeloid leukemia cells. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 38, pp 861-865.
- Krick, A., Kehraus, S., Gerhauser, C., Klimo, K., Nieger, M., Maier, A., Fiebig, H.H., Atodiresei, I., Raabe, G., Fleischhauer, J., Konig, G.M. (2007). Potential cancer chemopreventive in vitro activities of monomeric xanthone derivatives from the marine algicolous fungus *Monodictys putredinis*. *Journal of Natural Products*, 70, pp 353–360.
- Kusari, S., Pandey, S.P., Spiteller, M. (2012). Untapped mutualistic paradigms linking host plant and endophytic fungal production of similar bioactive secondary metabolites. *Phytochemistry*, 91, pp 81-87.

- Lamothe, R.G., Segura, R., Trapero, A., Baldoni, L., Botella, M.A., Valpuesta, V. (2002). Phylogeny of the fungus *Spilocaea oleagina*, the causal agent of peacock leaf spot in olive. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 210, pp 149-155.
- Le, Z.G., Lin, Y.C., Jiang, G.C. (1998). Metabolites of mangrove fungus *Julella avicenniae* from the South China Sea. *Journal of Sun Yat-sen University: Natural Science*, 37(4): 119-120.
- Le, Z.G., Lin, Y.C., Jiang, G.C. (1999). Studies on the volatile metabolites of marine fungus *Hypoxylon* sp. *Chinese Journal of Marine Drugs*, 18(2), pp 12-14.
- Lee, H.Y., Chai, L.C., Tang, S.Y., Jinap, S., Ghazali, F.M., Nakaguchi, Y., Nishibuchi, M., Son, R. (2009). Application of MPN-PCR in biosafety of *Bacillus cereus s.l.* for ready-to-eat cereals. *Food Control*, 20, pp 1068-1071.
- Liberra, K., Jansen, R., Lindequist, U. (1995). Marine fungi- a prolific resource of biologically active products. *Pharmazie*, 50, pp 583-588.
- Liberra, K., Jansen, R., Lindequist, U. (1998). Corollosporine, a new phthalide derivative from the marine fungus *Corollospora maritima* Werderm 1069. *Pharmazie*, 53, pp 578-581.
- Li, X., Kim, S.K., Nam, K.W., Kang, J.S., Choi, H.D., Son, B.W. (2006). A new antibacterial dioxopiperazine alkaloid related to gliotoxin from a marine isolated of the fungus *Pseudallescheria*. *Journal of Antibiotics*, 59(4), pp 248-250.
- Li, L., Wright, S.J., Krystofova, S., Park, G., Borkovich, K.A. (2007). Heterotrimeric G protein signalling in filamentous fungi. *Annual Review of Microbiology*, 61, pp 423-452.
- Li, K.K., Lu, Y.J., Song, X.H., She, Z.G., Wu, X.W., An, L.K., Ye, C.X., Lin, Y.C. (2010). The metabolites of mangrove endophytic fungus Zh6-B1 from the South China Sea. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 20, pp 3326-3328.
- Li, S., Li, D., Tao, M., Chen, Y., Zhang, Q., Dan, F., Zhang, W. (2012). Two new polyketides from a marine sediment-derived fungus *Eutypella scoparia* FS26. *Natural Product Research*, pp 1-7.
- Lin, Y., Wu, X., Feng, S., Jiang, G., Zhou, S., Vrijmoed, L.L.P., Jones, E.B.G. (2001). A novel N-cinnamoylcyclopeptide containing an allenic ether from the fungus *Xylaria* sp. (strain # 2508) from the South China Sea. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 42, pp 449-451.
- Lin, Y., X. Wu, D. Zhijun, J. Wang, S. Zhou, L. L. P. Vrijmoed, E. B. G. Jones. (2002). The metabolites of the mangrove fungus *Verruculina enalia* No. 2606 from a salt lake in the Bahamas. *Phytochemistry*, 59, pp 469-471.
- Lin, Z., Zhu, T., Fang, Y., Gu, Q., Zhu, W. (2008). Polyketides from *Penicillium* sp. JP-1, an endophytic fungus associated with the mangrove plant *Aegiceras corniculatum*. *Phytochemistry*, 69, pp 1273-1278.

- Linnakoski, R., Puhakka-Tarvainen, H., Pappinen, A. (2012). Endophytic fungi isolated from *Khaya anthothea* in Ghana. *Fungal Ecology*, 5, pp 298-308.
- Liu, Z., Jensen, R., Fenical, W. (2003). A cyclic carbonate and related polyketides from a marine derived fungus of the genus *Phoma*. *Phytochemistry*, 64, pp 571-574.
- Liu, J.Y., Huang, L.L., Ye, Y.H., Zou, W.X., Guo, Z.J., Tan, R.X. (2005). Antifungal and new metabolites of *Myrothecium* sp. Z16, a fungus associated with white croaker *Argyrosomus argentatus*. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 100, pp 195-202.
- Liu, R., Zhu, W., Zhang, Y., Zhu, T., Liu, H., Fang, Y., Gu, Q. (2006). A new diphenyl ether from marine-derived fungus *Aspergillus* sp. B-F-2. *The Journal of Antibiotics*, 59(6), pp 362-365.
- Liu, Q., Xu, L., Ke, Y., Jin, Y., Zhang, F., Liang, X. (2011). Analysis of cephalosporins by hydrophilic interaction chromatography. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis*, 54, pp 623-628.
- Llamas, D.P., Gonzalez, M.C., Gonzalez, C.I., Lopez, G.R., Marquina, J.C.T. (2008). Effects of water potential on spore germination and viability of *Fusarium* species. *Journal of Industrial Microbiological Biotechnology*, 35, pp 1411-1418.
- Lu, X., Cao, X., Liu, X., Jiao, B. (2010). Marine Microbes-Derived Anti-Bacterial Agents. *Mini-Reviews in Medicinal Chemistry*, 10, pp 1077-1090.
- Logesh, A.R., Thillaimaharani, K.A., Sharmila, K., Kalaiselvam, M., Raffi, S.M. (2012). Production of chitosan from endolichenic fungi isolated from mangrove environment and its antagonistic activity. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, pp 140-143.
- Maddox, V., Westbrooks, R., Byrd, J.D., Brabson, B. (2007). Beach Vitex (*Vitex rotundifolia* L.f.). Mississippi State University, Geosystems Research Institute. Retrieved on 16th June 2013 from www.gri.msstate.edu.
- Maggio, R.M., Kaufman, T.S., Carlo, M.D., Cerretani, L., Bendini, A., Cichelli, A., Compagnone, D. (2009). Monitoring of fatty acid composition in virgin olive oil by Fourier transformed infrared spectroscopy coupled with partial least squares. *Food Chemistry*, 114, pp 1549-1554.
- Manivasagan, P., Venkatesan, J., Sivakumar, K., Kim, S.K. (2013). Marine actinobacterial metabolites: Current status and future perspectives. *Microbiological Research*, 168, pp 311-332.
- Martinez, C.E., Morales, S.C., Serrano, M.F., Rahman, M.M., Gibbons, S., Miranda, R.P. (2010). Characterization of a xylose containing oligosaccharide, and inhibitor of multidrug resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*, from *Ipomoea pes-caprae*. *Phytochemistry*, 71, 1796-1801.

- Max, J.J., Chapados, C. (2004). Infrared spectroscopy of aqueous carboxylic acids: Comparison between different acids and their salts. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry*, 108(16), pp 3324-3337.
- Mayer, A.M.S., Rodriguez, A.D., Tagliatalata-Scafati, O., Fusetani, N. (2013). Marine Pharmacology in 2009-2011: Marine compounds with antibacterial, antidiabetic, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, antiprotozoal, antituberculosis, and antiviral activities; affecting the immune and nervous systems, and other miscellaneous mechanisms of action. *Marine Drugs*, 11, pp 2510-2573, doi:10.3390/md11072510.
- Mendoza, M.F. Gordillo, C.D.M., Expósito, J.M., Casas, J.S., Cano, M.M., Vertedor, D.M., Baltasar, M.N.F. (2013). Chemical composition of virgin oils according to the ripening in olives. *Food Chemistry*, 141, pp 2575-2581.
- Miller, N.S., Dobre, M.C., Liebschutz, J.M., Williams, T.C., Orr, B.L., Harrison, W.F. (2007). *Micrococcus* bacteremia in a patient with pulmonary hypertension and a long-term central venous catheter: opportunity knocks, and an unexpected pathogen enters. *Clinical Microbiology Newsletter*, 29(22).
- Morrison, E., Rundberget, T., Kosiak, B., Aastveit, A.H., Bernhoft, A. (2001). Cytotoxicity of trichothecenes and fusarochromanone produced by *Fusarium equiseti* strains isolated from Norwegian cereals. *Mycopathologia*, 153, pp 49-56.
- Monaghan, R.L., Barrett, J.F. (2006). Antibacterial drug discovery-Then, now and the genomics future. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 71, pp 901-909.
- Moran, L.F., Aronsson, B., Manz, C., Gyssens, I.C., So, A.D., Monnet, D.L., Cars, O. (2011). Critical shortage of new antibiotics in development against multidrug-resistant bacteria-Time to react is now. *Drug Resistance Updates*, 14, pp 118-124.
- Moss, M. O. (1984). The mycelial habit and secondary metabolite production. In: *Advances in Applied Microbiology: The Ecology and Physiology of the fungal Mycelium* at Symposium of the British Mycological Society, Bath University (Jennings, D. H. and Rayno, A. D. M, eds). Cambridge University Press, 34, pp 127-141.
- Nawwar, M., Hussein, S., Ayoub, N.A., Hashim, A., Mernitz, G., Cuypers, B., Linscheid, M., Lindequist, U. (2010). Deuteromycols A and B, two benzofuranoids from a Red Sea marine-derived *Deuteromycete* sp. *Archives of Pharmacal Research*, 33(11), pp 1729-1733.
- Neumann, H., Strubing, D., Lalk, M., Klaus, S., Hubner, S., Spannberg, A., Lindequist, U., Beller, M. (2006). Synthesis and antimicrobial activity of N-analogue corollosporines. *Organic and Biomolecular Chemistry*, 4, pp 1365-1375.
- Nikolcheva, L.G., Barlocher, F. (2004). Taxon-specific fungal primers reveal unexpectedly high diversity during leaf decomposition in a stream. *Mycological Progress*, 3(1), pp.

Numata, A., Amagata, T., Minoura, K., Ito, T. (1997). Gymnastatins, novel cytotoxic metabolites produced by a fungal strain from a sponge. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 38, pp 5675-5678.

Ola, A.R.B., Debbab, A., Aly, A.H., Mandi, A., Zerfass, I., Hamacher, A., Kassack, M.U., Brotz-Oesterhelt, H., Kurtan, T., Proksch, P. (2014). Absolute configuration and antibiotic activity of neosatorin from the endophytic fungus *Aspergillus fumigatiaffinis*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 55, pp 1020-1023.

Oliveira, A.L.L., Felicio, R., Debonsi, H.M. (2012). Marine natural products: chemical and biological potential of seaweeds and their endopytic fungi. *Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy*, 22(4), pp 906-920.

Ono, M., Ito, Y., Nohara, T. (1998). A labdane diterpene glycoside from the fruit of *Vitex Rotundifolia*. *Phytochemistry*, 48(1), pp 207-209.

Oprica, C. (2009). Bacteriology of the Skin. In: (Revuz, J., Roujeau, J.C., Kerdel, F.A., Allanore, L.V. eds). *Life-Threatening Dermatoses and Emergencies in Dermatology*. Springer. pp 29-36.

Oshiro, T., Nagasawa, Z., Hanaki, H., Ikeda-Dantsuji, Y., Nagayama, A. (2008). The antagonistic effects of a combination of vancomycin and minocycline in *Staphylococcus aureus* with heterogeneous resistance to vancomycin. *Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy*, 14, pp 15-22.

Pang, K.L., Mitchell, J.I. (2005). Molecular approaches for assessing fungal diversity in marine substrata. *Botanica Marina*, 48, pp 332-347.

Pan, J. H., Jones, E. B. G., She, Z. G., Pang, J. Y., Lin, Y. C. (2008). Review of bioactive compounds from fungi in the South China Sea. *Botanica Marina*, 51, pp 179-190.

Paterson, D.L. (2006). Resistance in Gram-negative bacteria: enterobacteriaceae. *The American Journal of Medicine*, 119, pp 62-70.

Pereira, V., Dias, C., Vasconcelos, M.C., Rosa, E., Saavedra, M.J. (2014). Antibacterial activity and synergistic effects between *Eucalyptus globulus* leaf residues (essential oils and extracts) and antibiotics against several isolated of respiratory tract infections (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*). *Industrial Crops and Products*, 52, pp 1-7.

Pervez, M.R., Musaddiq, M., Thakare, P.V. (2012). In-vitro antimicrobial studies of isolated *Myrothecium spp* MRP001 against human pathogens. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Medical Sciences*, 2(3), pp 228-236.

Pontius, A., Krick, A., Kehraus, S., Brun, R., Konig, G.M. (2008a). Antiprotozoal activities of heterocyclic-substituted xanthenes from the marine-derived fungus *Chaetomium sp.* *Journal of Natural Products*, 71, pp 1579–1584.

- Pontius, A., Krick, A., Mesry, R., Kehraus, S., Foegen, S.E., Muller, M., Klimo, K., Gerhauser, C., Konig, G.M. (2008b). Monodictyochromes A and B, dimeric xanthone derivatives from the marine algicolous fungus *Monodictys putredinis*. *Journal of Natural Products*, 71, pp 1793–1799.
- Poole, K. (2001). Multidrug resistance in Gram-negative bacteria. *Current Opinion in Microbiology*, 4(5), pp 500-508.
- Powthong, P., Jantrapanukorn, B., Thongmee, A., Suntornthiticharoen, P. (2012). Evaluation of endophytic fungi extract for their antimicrobial activity from *Sesbania grandiflora* (L.) Pers. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 3(2), pp 132-136.
- Prewitt, M.L., Diehl, S.V., McElroy, T.C., Diehl, W.J. (2008). Comparison of general fungal and basidiomycete-specific ITS primers for identification of wood decay fungi. *Forest Products Journal*, 58(4), pp 66-71.
- Proksch, P., Ebel, R., Edrada, R., Riebe, F., Liu, H., Diesel, A., Bayer, M., Li, X., Lin, W.H., Grebenyuk, V., Mueller, W.E.G., Draeger, S., Zuccaro, A., Schulz, B. (2008). Sponge-associated fungi and their bioactive compounds: the Suberites case. *Botanica Marina*, 51, pp 208-218.
- Qi, S.H., Xu, Y., Xiong, H.R., Qian, P.Y., Zhang, S. (2009). Antifouling and antibacterial compounds from a marine fungus *Clasdosporium* sp. F14. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 25, 399-406.
- Radic, N., Strukelj, B. (2012). Endophytic fungi-The treasure chest of antibacterial substances. *Phytomedicine*, 51289.
- Ramos, H.P., Said, S. (2011). Modulation of biological activities produced by an endophytic fungus under different culture conditions. *Advances in Bioscience and Biotechnology*, 2, pp 443-449.
- Rao, S.C.V., Waelheyns, E.D., Economou, A., Anne, J. (2014). Antibiotic targeting of the bacterial secretory pathway. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbamcr.2014.02.004>.
- Rateb, M.E., Houssen, W.E., Legrave, N.M., Clements, C., Jaspars, M. and Ebel, Rainer. (2010). Dibenzofurans from the marine sponge-derived ascomycete Super1F1-09. *Botanica Marina*, 53, pp 499-506.
- Ratnayake, R., Fremlin, L.J., Lacey, E., Gill, J.H., Capon, R.J. (2008). Acremolides A-D, lipodepsipeptides from an Australian marine-derived fungus, *Acremonium* sp. *Journal of Natural Product*, 71, pp 403-408.
- Rhoden, S.A., Garcia, A., Bongiorno, V.A., Azevedo, J.L., Pamphile, J.A. (2012). Antimicrobial activity of crude extracts of endophytic fungi isolated from medicinal plant *Trichilia elegans* A. Juss. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*, 2(8), pp 57-59.

Ruiz, N., Dubois, N., Collin, G.W., Pont, T.R., Berge, J.P., Pouchus, Y.F., Barnathan, G. (2007). Lipid content and fatty acid composition of a marine-derived *Trichoderma longibrachiatum* strain cultured by agar surface and submerged fermentations. *Process Biochemistry*, 42, pp 676-680.

Rukachaisirikul, V., Rodglin, A., Phongpaichit, S., Buatong, J., Sakayaroj, J. (2012). α -pyrone and seiricuprolide derivatives from the mangrove-derived fungus *Pestalotiopsis* spp. PSU-MA92 and PSU-MA119. *Phytochemistry Letters*, 5, pp 13-17.

Sahoo, K., Dhal, N.K. (2009). Potential microbial diversity in mangrove ecosystems: A review. *Indian Journal of Marine Sciences*, 38(2), pp 249-256.

Sakuradani, E., Nojiri, M., Suzuki, H., Shimizu, S. (2009). Identification of a novel fatty acid elongase with a wide substrate specificity from arachidonic acid-producing fungus *Mortierella alpina* 1S-4. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 84, pp 709-716.

Saleem, M., Tousif, M.I., Riaz, N., Ahmed, I., Schulz, B., Ashraf, M., Nasar, R., Pescitelli, G., Hussain, H., Jabbar, A., Shafiq, N., Krohn, K. (2013). Cryptosporioptide: A bioactive polyketide produced by an endophytic fungus *Cryptosporiopsis* sp. *Phytochemistry*, 93, pp 199-202.

Schulz, B., Boyle, C., Draeger, S., Rommert, A.K., Krohn, K. (2002). Endophytic fungi: a source of novel biologically active secondary metabolites. *Mycological Research*, 106(9), pp 996-1004.

Senatore, F., Dini, A., Marino, A., Schettino, O. (1998). Chemical constituents of some Basidiomycetes. *Journal of Science, Food and Agriculture*, 45(4), pp 337-345.

Shin, T.Y., Kim, S.H., Lim, J.P., Suh, E.S., Jeong, H.J., Kim, B.D., Park, E.J., Hwang, W.J., Rye, D.G., Baek, S.H., An, N.H., Kim, H.M. (2000). Effect of *Vitex rotundifolia* on immediate-type allergic reaction. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 72, pp 443-450.

Shiomi, K., Omura, S. (2002). Discovery of new macrolides. *Macrolide Antibiotics-Chemistry, Biology and Practice*, 2nd edition, ISBN0-12-526451-8.

Shiono, Y., Kikuchi, M., Koseki, T., Murayama, T., Kwon, E., Aburai, N. and Kimura, K. (2011). Isopimarane diterpene glycosides, isolated from the endophytic fungus *Paraconiothyrium* sp. MY-42. *Phytochemistry*, 72, 1400-1405.

Shiono, Y., Shibuya, F., Murayama, T., Koseki, T., Poumale, H.M.P., Ngadjui, B.T. (2013). A polyketide metabolite from an endophytic *Fusarium equiseti* in a medicinal plant. *Zeitschrift für Naturforschung*, 68b, pp 289-292, doi:10.5560/ZNB.2013-3014.

Singh, J., Arrieta, A.C. (1999). New Cephalosporins. *Seminars in Pediatric Infectious Diseases*, 10(1), pp 14-22.

Sood, M. (2011). Cultural physiology: Effect of culture mediums and pH on the growth, sporulation and secondary metabolites production of *Aspergillus umbrosus*. *Journal of Ecobiotechnology*, 3(9), pp 8-11.

Spalding, M., Kainuma, M., Collins, L. (2010). World Atlas of Mangroves. *Earthscan, UK*. pp 319

Sridhar, K.R., Alias, S.A., Pang, K.L. (2012). Mangrove fungi. In: (Jones, E.B.G., & Pang, K.L eds.). *Marine Fungi and Fungal like Organisms*. Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin/Boston. pp, 253-271.

Stierle, A., Strobel, G., Stierle, D. (1993). Taxol and taxol production by *Taxomyces andreanae*, an endophytic fungus of pacific yew. *Science*, 260, pp 214-216.

Strobel, G.A. (2003). Endophytes as sources of bioactive products. *Microbes and Infections*, 5, pp 535-544.

Strobel, G., Daisy, B. (2003). Bioprospecting for microbial endophytes and their natural products. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*, 67(4), pp 491-502

Stuart, C.H., Schwartz, S.A., Beeson, T.J., Owatz, C.B. (2006). *Enterococcus faecalis*: Its role in root canal treatment failure and current concepts in retreatment. *Journal of Endodontic*, 32(2).

Suarez, C., Pena, C., Tubau, F., Gavaldà, L., Manzur, A., Dominguez, M.A., Pujol, M., Gudiol, F., Ariza, J. (2009) Clinical impact of imipenem-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bloodstream infections. *Journal of Infection*, 58, pp 285-290.

Subramani, R., Aalbersberg, W. (2012). Marine actinomycetes: An ongoing source of novel bioactive metabolites. *Microbiological Research*, 167, pp 571-580.

Sultan, S., Shah, S.A.A., Sun, L., Ramasami, K., Cole, A., Blunt, J., H.G M.M., Weber J.F.F. (2011). Bioactive fungal metabolites of 9PR2 isolated from roots of *Callophyllum Ferrugineum*. *International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Science*, 3, pp 7-9.

Suryanarayanan, T.S., Thirunavukkarasu, N., Govindarajulu, M.B., Sasse, F., Jansen, R., Murali, T.S. (2009). Fungal endophytes and bioprospecting. *Fungal Biology Reviews*, 23, pp 9-19.

Suyama, T.L., Gerwick, W.H., McPhail, K.L. (2011). Survey of marine natural product structure revisions: A synergy of spectroscopy and chemical synthesis. *Bioorganic and Medicinal Chemistry*, 19, pp 6675-6701.

Swathi, J., Sowjanya, K.M., Narendra, K., Reddy, K.V.N.R., Satya, A.K. (2013). Isolation, identification & production of bioactive metabolites from marine fungi collected from coastal area of Andhra Pradesh, India. *Journal of Pharmacy Research*, 6, pp 663-666.

Tallent, S.M. (2012). Chapter: *Bacillus* species. *Bad Bug Book-Foodborne Pathogenic Microorganisms and Natural Toxins* (2nd Edition). Retrieved on 19th August 2013 from <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Food/FoodborneIllnessContaminants/UCM297627.pdf>

- Tang, T.F., Liu, X.M., Ling, M., Lai, F., Zhang, L., Zhou, Y.H., Sun, R.R. (2013). Constituents of the essential oil and fatty acid from *Malania oleifera*. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 43, pp 1-5.
- Tenson, T., Lovmar, M., Ehrenberg, M. (2003). The mechanism of action of macrolides, lincosamides and streptogramin B reveals the nascent peptide exit path in the ribosome. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 330(5), pp 1005-1014.
- Toju, H., Tanabe, A.S., Yamamoto, S., Sato, H. (2012). High-coverage ITS primers for the DNA-based identification of ascomycetes and basidiomycetes in environmental samples. *PLoS ONE* 7(7): e40863. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0040863.
- Tong, W.Y., Darah, I., Latiffah, Z. (2011). Antimicrobial activities of endophytic fungal isolated from medicinal herb *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, 5(5), pp 831-836.
- Trisuwan, K., Khamthong, N., Rukachaisirikul, V., Phongpaichit, S., Sakayaroj, J. (2010). Anthraquinone, cyclopentone and naphthoquinone derivatives from the sea fan-derived fungi *Fusarium* spp. PSU-F14 and PSU-F135. *Journal of Natural Products*, 73, pp 1507-1511.
- Umamaheshwari, G., Ramanathan, T., Shanmugapriya, R. (2012). Antioxidant and radical scavenging effect of *Ipomoea pes-caprae* Linn. R.Br. *International journal of PharmTech Research*, 4(3), pp 1177-1180.
- Varughese, T., Rios, N., Higginbotham, S., Elizabeth Arnold, A., Coley, P.D., Kursar, T.A., Gerwick, W.H., Cubilla Rios, L. (2012). Antifungal depsidone metabolites from *Cordyceps dipterigena*, an endophytic fungus antagonistic to the phytopathogen *Gibberella fujikuroi*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, doi: 10.1016/j.tetlet.2012.01.076.
- Vaz, A.B.M., Brandao, L.R., Vieira, M.L.A., Pimenta, R.S., Morais, P.B., Sobral, M.E.G., Rosa, L.H., Rosa, C.A. (2012). Diversity and antimicrobial activity of fungal endophyte communities associated with plants of Brazilian savannah ecosystems. *African Journal of Microbiology Research*, 6(13), pp 3173-3185.
- Vicente, G., Bautista, L.F., Rodriguez, R., Gutierrez, F.J., Sadaba, I., Vazquez, R.M.R., Martinez, S.T., Garre, V. (2009). Biodiesel production from biomass of an oleaginous fungus. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 48, pp 22-27.
- Vongvilai, P., Isaka, M., Kittakoop, P., Srikitikulchai, P. Kongsaree, P. and Thebtaranonth, Y. (2004). Ketene acetal and spirocetal constituents of the marine fungus *Aigialus parvus* BCC 5311. *Journal of Natural Product*, 67, pp 457-460.
- Wang, J., She, Z.G., Jiang, G.C., Lin, Y.C., Vrijmoed, L.L.P. (2005). Secondary metabolites of the marine fungus No. 2492 from the mangrove *Phragmites australis* of the South China Sea. *Zhongshan Daxue Xuebao*, 44(2), pp 132-134.
- Wang, F.W., Jiao, R.H., Cheng, A.B., Tan, S.H., Song, Y.C. (2007). Antimicrobial potentials of endophytic fungi residing in *Quercus variabilis* and brefeldin A obtained from *Clasdosporium* sp. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 23, 79-83.

- Wang, Y.T., Pang, Z.K., Li, X.I., Guo, Z.Y., Wang, J.Z., Zou, K. (2010). Analysis of fatty acid from the mangrove endophytic fungus *Paecilomyces* sp. (Tree 1-7) by GC-MS. *Fine Chemicals*, 2010-01.
- Weidenmaier, C., Goerke, C., Wolz, C. (2012). *Staphylococcus aureus* determinants for nasal colonization. *Trends in Microbiology*, 20(5).
- Weishaar, J.L., Aiken, G.R., Bergamaschi, B.A., Fram, M.S., Fujii, R., Mopper, K. (2003). Evaluation of specific ultraviolet absorbance as an indicator of the chemical composition and reactivity of dissolved organic carbon. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 37(20), pp 4702-4708.
- Wen, L., Lin, Y.C., She, Z.G., Du, D.S., Chan, W.L., Zheng, Z.H. (2008). Paeciloxanthone, a new cytotoxic xanthone from the marine mangrove fungus *Paecilomyces* sp. (Tree1-7). *Journal of Asian Natural Products Research*, 10(2), pp 133-137.
- World Health Organization. (2002). *Prevention of hospital-acquired infections-A practical guide* 2nd edition. WHO reference number: WHO/CDS/CSR/EPH/2002.12. Retrieved on 15th May 2013 from <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s16355e/s16355e.pdf>.
- Wu, Z.J., Ouyang, M.A., and Tan, Q.W. (2008). New asperxanthone and asperbiphenyl from the Marine Fungus *Aspergillus* sp., *Wiley Interscience*, 10, pp 1645.
- Wu, Q.X., Crews, M.S., Draskovic, M., Sohn, J., Johnson, T.A., Tenney, K., Valeriote, F.A., Yao, X.J., Bjeldanes, L.F., Crews, P. (2010). Azonazine, a novel dipeptide from a Hawaiian marine sediment-derived fungus, *Aspergillus insulicola*. *Organic Letters*, 12(20), pp 4458-4461.
- Wu, H.H., Liu, H.Y., Lin, Y.C., Hsueh, P.R., Lee, Y.J. (2012). Correlation between levofloxacin consumption and the incidence of nosocomial infections due to fluoroquinolone-resistant *Escherichia coli*. *Journal of Microbiology, Immunology and Infection*, xx, pp 1-6.
- Xia, K.X., Huang, H.R., She, Z.G., Cai, J.W., Lan, L., Zhang, J.Y., Fu, L.W., Vrijmoed, L.L.P., Lin, Y.C. (2007). Structural and biological properties of Vermistatin and two new Vermistatin derivatives from the marine-mangrove endophytic fungus *Guignardia* sp. No. 4382. *Helvetica Chimica Acta*, 90, pp 1925-1931.
- Yamada, T., Minoura, K., Tanaka, R., Numata, A. (2007). Cell-adhesion inhibitors produced by sea hare-derived *Periconia* sp. III. Absolute stereostructures of peribysins J and macroshelide M. *Journal of Antibiotic*, 60, pp 370-375.
- Yap, C.K., Ismail, S., Tan, S.G., Omar, H. (2002). Concentrations of Cu and Pb in the offshore and intertidal sediments of the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia. *Environment International*, 28, pp 467-479.
- Yin, H., Sun, Y.H. (2011). Vincamine-producing endophytic fungus isolated from *Vinca minor*. *Phytomedicine*, 18, pp 802-805.

- You, X., Feng, S., Luo, S., Cong, D., Yu, Z., Yang, Z., Zhang, J. (2013). Studies on a rhein-producing endophytic fungus isolated from *Rheum palmatum* L. *Fitoterapia*, 85, pp 161-168.
- Yu, H., Zhang, L., Li, L., Zheng, C., Guo, L., Li, W., Sun, P., Qin, L. (2010a). Recent developments and future prospects of antimicrobial metabolites produced by endophytes. *Microbiological Research*, 165, pp 437-449.
- Yu, K., Ren, B., Wei, J., Chen, C., Sun, J., Song, F., Dai, H., Zhang, L. (2010b). Verrucisidinol verrucosidinol acetate, two pyrone-type polyketides isolated from a marine derived fungus *Penicillium aurantiogriseum*. *Marine Drugs*, 8, 2744-2754.
- Zaidi, A.K., Huskins, W.C., Thaver, D., Bhutta, Z.A., Abbas, Z., Goldmann, D.A. (2005). Hospital-acquired neonatal infections in developing countries. *Lancet*, 365, pp 1175–1188.
- Zainuddin, N., Alias, S.A., Lee, C.W., Ebel, R., Othman, N.A., Mukhtar, M.R., Awang, K. 2010. Antimicrobial activities of marine fungi from Malaysia. *Botanica Marina*, 53, pp 507-513.
- Zhang, Y., Ling, S., Fang, Y., Zhu, T., Gu, Q., Zhu, W.M. (2008a). Isolation, structure elucidation, and antimycobacterial properties of dimeric naphtho- γ -pyrones from the marine-derived fungus *Aspergillus carbonarius*. *Chemical Biodiversity*, 5, pp 93–100.
- Zhang, D., Yang, X., Kang, J.S., Choi, H.D., Son, B.W. (2008b). Circumdatin I, a new ultraviolet-A protecting benzodiazepine alkaloid from a marine isolate of the fungus *Exophiala* sp. *Journal of Antibiotic*, 61, pp 40–42.
- Zhang, Y.L., Kong, L.C., Jiang, D.H., Yin, C.P., Cai, Q.M., Chen, Q., Zheng, J.Y. (2011). Phytotoxic and antifungal metabolites from *Curvularia* sp. FH01 isolated from the gut of *Atractomorpha sinensis*. *Bioresource Technology*, 102, pp 3575-3577.
- Zhang, G. (2012). Chapter: *Enterococcus, Streptococcus* species. *Bad Bug Book- Foodborne Pathogenic Microorganisms and Natural Toxins* (2nd Edition). Retrieved on 19th August 2013 from <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Food/FoodborneIllnessContaminants/UCM297627.pdf>
- Zhang, G.F., Han, W.B., Cui, J.T., Ng, S.W., Guo, Z.K., Tan, R.X., Ge, H.M. (2012). Neuraminidase inhibitory polyketides from the marine-derived fungus *Phoma herbarum*. *Planta medica*, 78, pp 76-78.
- Zhang, H., Xiong, Y., Zhao, H., Yi, Y., Zhang, C., Yu, C., Xu, C. (2013). An antimicrobial compound from the endophytic fungus *Phoma* sp. isolated from the medicinal plant *Taraxacum mongolicum*. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers*, 44, pp 177-181.
- Zhang, W., Xu, L., Yang, L., Huang, Y., Li, S., Shen, Y. (2014). Phomopsidone A, a novel depsidone metabolite from the mangrove endophytic fungus *Phomopsis* sp. A123. *Fitoterapia*, 96, pp 146-151.

- Zhao, J., Shan, T., Huang, Y., Liu, X., Gao, X., Wang, M., Jiang, W., Zhou, L. (2009). Chemical composition and in vitro antimicrobial activity of the volatile oils from *Gliomastix murorum* and *Pichia guilliermondii*, two endophytic fungi in *Paris polyphylla* var. *yunnanensis*. *Natural Products Communications*, 4, pp 1491-1496.
- Zheng, C.J., Yoo, J.S., Lee, T.G., Cho, H.Y., Kim, Y.H., Kim, W.G. (2005). Fatty acid synthesis is a target for antibacterial activity of unsaturated fatty acids. *FEBS Letters*, 579, pp 5157-5162.
- Zhou, Y., Debbab, A., Wray, V., Lin, W.H., Schulz, B., Trepos, R., Pile, C., Hellio, C., Proksch, P., Aly, A.H. (2014). Marine bacterial inhibitors from sponge-derived fungus *Aspergillus* sp. *Tetrahedron Letter*, 55, pp 2789-2792.
- Zhu, L.Y., Zong, M.H., Wu, H. (2008). Efficient lipid production with *Trichosporon fermentans* and its use for biodiesel preparation. *Bioresource Technology*, 99, pp 7881-7885.
- Zhuravleva, O.I., Afiyatullof, S.S., Vishchuk, O.S., Denisenko, V.A., Slinkina, N.N., Smetanina, O.F. (2012). Decumbenone C, a new cytotoxic decaline derivative from the marine fungus *Aspergillus sulphures* KMM 4640. *Archived of Pharmacal Research*, 35(10), pp 1757-1762.

APPENDIX 1

Preparation of media and chemicals

Luria Broth agar (LB)

37 g of powder was dissolved with 1 L distilled water in a Schott bottle. The medium was then sterilized by autoclave at 121°C for 15 minutes.

Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB)

21 g of powder was dissolved with 1 L distilled water in a Schott bottle. The medium was then sterilized by autoclave at 121°C for 15 minutes.

Potato Dextrose agar (PDA)

39 g of powder was dissolved in 1 L distilled water in a Schott bottle. The medium was then sterilized by autoclave at 121°C for 15 minutes.

Potato Dextrose broth (PDB)

24 g of powder was dissolved in 1 L distilled water in a Schott bottle. The medium was then sterilized by autoclave at 121°C for 15 minutes.

Preparation of antibiotics

For the preparation of antibiotics chloramphenicol and penicillin, 2.0 mg of powder was dissolved in 1ml of distilled water respective for both antibiotics. It was then sterilized using 0.45 μm syringe filter. After sterilization, the antibiotic solution was stored in a -20°C freezer.

Preparation of INT

20 mg of INT was dissolved in 50 ml of distilled water. It was then sterilized using 0.45 μm syringe filter. After sterilization, the INT solution was stored in a -20°C freezer.

APPENDIX 2

List of aligned ITS sequence by NCBI BLAST of marine derived endophytic fungi

Bipolaris sp. KH00278 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1 and 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, complete sequence; and internal transcribed spacer 2, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|294471397|gb|GU017499.1|Length: 577Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1066 bits(577)	0.0	577/577 (100%)	0/577 (0%)		Plus/Plus
Query 19		AACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATACAATATGAAGGCTG			78
Sbjct 1		AACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATACAATATGAAGGCTG			60
Query 79		TCCGCAGCTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGCCTACTGTTGTTTCCCTGGGCGGG			138
Sbjct 61		TCCGCAGCTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGCCTACTGTTGTTTCCCTGGGCGGG			120
Query 139		TTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGT			198
Sbjct 121		TTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGT			180
Query 199		ACAAACAATGTAATATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATG			258
Sbjct 181		ACAAACAATGTAATATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATG			240
Query 259		AAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATC			318
Sbjct 241		AAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATC			300
Query 319		TTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTG			378
Sbjct 301		TTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTG			360
Query 379		TACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGCGGTTTTGTCTTTGGTCGCCCAAAGACTCGCCT			438
Sbjct 361		TACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGCGGTTTTGTCTTTGGTCGCCCAAAGACTCGCCT			420
Query 439		TAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGCAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCTTGCCA			498
Sbjct 421		TAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGCAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCTTGCCA			480
Query 499		TCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGA			558
Sbjct 481		TCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGA			540
Query 559		TACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA			595
Sbjct 541		TACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA			577

Bipolaris sp. 1 TMS-2011 voucher SC9d100p9-2 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383330|gb|HQ631009.1|Length: 609Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1068 bits(578)	0.0	589/594 (99%)	2/594 (0%)		Plus/Plus
Query 2		GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAT			61
Sbjct 16		GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAT			75
Query 62		ACAATATGAAGGCTGTCCGCAGCTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGCCTACTG-			120
Sbjct 76		ACAATATGAAGGCTGTCCGCAGCTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGCCTACTG			135
Query 121		TTGTTTCTGGGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAAACAACCTTTTTTATGCAGT			180
Sbjct 136		TTGTTTCTGGGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAAACAACCTTTTTTATGCAGT			195
Query 181		TGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAAACAATGTAATCATTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTT			240
Sbjct 196		TGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAAACAATGTAATCATTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTT			255
Query 241		GGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATC			300
Sbjct 256		GGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATC			315
Query 301		AGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCT			360
Sbjct 316		AGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCT			375
Query 361		GTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGCGGTTTTTGTCTTTGGTC			420
Sbjct 376		GTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGCGGTTTTTGTCTTTGGTC			435
Query 421		GCCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGCAGCGCAGCAC			480
Sbjct 436		GCCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGCAGCGCAGCAC			495
Query 481		ATTTTTGCGCTTGCCATCAGCAAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACC			540
Sbjct 496		ATTTTTGCGCTTGCCATCAGCAAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACC			555
Query 541		TCGGATCAGGTAGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAG-CGGAGGAA			593
Sbjct 556		TCGGATCAGGTAGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA			609

Bipolaris sp. CC06-23-3_DCPA 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|478432585|gb|JX960589.1|Length: 570Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1037 bits(561)	0.0	568/571 (99%)		2/571 (0%)	
Query	15	TCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTTAAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATACAATATGA			74
Sbjct	1	TCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGT--AGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATACAATATGA			58
Query	75	AGGCTGCCGACGTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGGCGACTTGGTTTCCTG			134
Sbjct	59	AGGCTGCCGACGTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTTTTGGCGACTTGGTTTCCTG			118
Query	135	GGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAACAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGC			194
Sbjct	119	GGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGC			178
Query	195	GTCAGTACAACAATGTAAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCA			254
Sbjct	179	GTCAGTACAACAATGTAAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCA			238
Query	255	TCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCAT			314
Sbjct	239	TCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCAT			298
Query	315	CGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGGGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGT			374
Sbjct	299	CGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGGGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGT			358
Query	375	CATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTTGTCTTTGGTCGCCCAAAGAC			434
Sbjct	359	CATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTTGTCTTTGGTCGCCCAAAGAC			418
Query	435	TCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTCTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCGC			494
Sbjct	419	TCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTCTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCGC			478
Query	495	TTGCCATCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGG			554
Sbjct	479	TTGCCATCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTCACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGG			538
Query	555	TAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAA			585
Sbjct	539	TAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAA			569

Bipolaris sp. SLP1 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, complete sequence; and internal transcribed spacer 2, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gb|JX949177.1|Length: 974Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1799 bits(974)	0.0	974/974 (100%)		0/974 (0%)	
Query	1	GGGGAAAACATTAAATATGAAGGCTGCCGACGTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTCTT			60
Sbjct	1	GGGGAAAACATTAAATATGAAGGCTGCCGACGTGGAGTATTTATTACCCTTGCTCTT			60
Query	61	TGCGCACTTGTGTTTCTGGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAATAAACCTTT			120
Sbjct	61	TGCGCACTTGTGTTTCTGGCGGGTTCGCTCGCCACCAGGACCACCAAATAAACCTTT			120
Query	121	TTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAA			180
Sbjct	121	TTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAA			180
Query	181	CGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGAAT			240
Sbjct	181	CGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGAAT			240
Query	241	TGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGGGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAA			300
Sbjct	241	TGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGGGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAA			300
Query	301	GGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTT			360
Sbjct	301	GGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTT			360
Query	361	GTCTTTGGTTCGCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGC			420
Sbjct	361	GTCTTTGGTTCGCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAAGTGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTTTCTGGTTTCGC			420
Query	421	AGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCTTGCATCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTC			480
Sbjct	421	AGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCTTGCATCAGCAAAACGGCAATCCATCAAGCCTCCTTCTC			480
Query	481	ACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGACGGA			540
Sbjct	481	ACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGACGGA			540
Query	541	GGAATACGTCTAGCAACTAACCACCTTCCCTTCTTCTTTCTTTAGATAAATAACGAA			600
Sbjct	541	GGAATACGTCTAGCAACTAACCACCTTCCCTTCTTCTTTCTTTAGATAAATAACGAA			600
Query	601	ATCAAAGCACACTTGCATTTCCCGAACACAGTACAGTAGACCATGTATCACTTATTGTC			660
Sbjct	601	ATCAAAGCACACTTGCATTTCCCGAACACAGTACAGTAGACCATGTATCACTTATTGTC			660
Query	661	CTGAGTCTTCGCGCCAGCTACTCGGAGATAAGACACACTAATCAAATAGAACCTACA			720
Sbjct	661	CTGAGTCTTCGCGCCAGCTACTCGGAGATAAGACACACTAATCAAATAGAACCTACA			720
Query	721	TCTCAAAGCTCGCCGACCTCATCAAACCTCGCAAAAAGCCAGATTAAAATATGCAACTCA			780

Sbjct	721		780
Query	781		840
Sbjct	781		840
Query	841		900
Sbjct	841		900
Query	901		960
Sbjct	901		960
Query	961		974
Sbjct	961		974

Cladosporium cladosporioides strain F28b 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|169639302|gb|EU497957.1|Length: 574Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1061 bits(574)	0.0	574/574 (100%)	0/574 (0%)			
Query	1	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACAAGTG				60
Sbjct	1	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACAAGTG				60
Query	61	ACCCCGGTTTACCACCGGGATGTTCAACCCCTTTGTGTCCGACTCTGTTGCCTCCGGG				120
Sbjct	61	ACCCCGGTTTACCACCGGGATGTTCAACCCCTTTGTGTCCGACTCTGTTGCCTCCGGG				120
Query	121	GCGACCTGCCTTCGGGCGGGGCTCCGGGTGGACACTTCAAACCTCTTGCCTAACTTTGC				180
Sbjct	121	GCGACCTGCCTTCGGGCGGGGCTCCGGGTGGACACTTCAAACCTCTTGCCTAACTTTGC				180
Query	181	AGTCTGAGTAACTTAATTAATAAAATTAACCTTTTAAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGC				240
Sbjct	181	AGTCTGAGTAACTTAATTAATAAAATTAACCTTTTAAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGC				240
Query	241	ATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCA				300
Sbjct	241	ATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCA				300
Query	301	TCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCGGGGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCG				360
Sbjct	301	TCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCGGGGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCG				360
Query	361	TCATTTCACTCAAGCCTCGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGCGGTCCGCCGCTGCCTCAA				420
Sbjct	361	TCATTTCACTCAAGCCTCGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGCGGTCCGCCGCTGCCTCAA				420
Query	421	TCGACCGCTGGGTCTTCTGTCCCCTAAGCGTGTGGAACTATTTCGCTAAAGGGTGCCTC				480
Sbjct	421	TCGACCGCTGGGTCTTCTGTCCCCTAAGCGTGTGGAACTATTTCGCTAAAGGGTGCCTC				480
Query	481	GGGAGGCTACGCCGTAAACAACCCCATTTCTAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATA				540
Sbjct	481	GGGAGGCTACGCCGTAAACAACCCCATTTCTAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATA				540
Query	541	CCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA				574
Sbjct	541	CCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA				574

Cochliobolus eragrostidis strain NBRC 100188 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, complete sequence; and internal transcribed spacer 2, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|363544572|gb|JN943412.1|Length: 572Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1057 bits(572)	0.0	572/572 (100%)	0/572 (0%)			
Query	27	TCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAAAAATATGAAGGCTGCAACCGCC				86
Sbjct	1	TCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAAAAATATGAAGGCTGCAACCGCC				60
Query	87	AGTTTTGGCGGGGAAGCTGAATTATTTTACCCATGTCTTTTGGCCTTGTGTTTCC				146
Sbjct	61	AGTTTTGGCGGGGAAGCTGAATTATTTTACCCATGTCTTTTGGCCTTGTGTTTCC				120
Query	147	TGGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCACCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCA				206
Sbjct	121	TGGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCACCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCA				180
Query	207	GCGTCAGTATAACAAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGG				266
Sbjct	181	GCGTCAGTATAACAAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGG				240
Query	267	CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC				326
Sbjct	241	CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC				300
Query	327	ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGC				386
Sbjct	301	ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGC				360
Query	387	GTCATTTGTACCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGGCTTTGCCCA				446
Sbjct	361	GTCATTTGTACCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGGCTTTGCCCA				420
Query	447	AAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGGAGCGCAGCACATTTT				506

```

Sbjct 421 |||AAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGGAGCGCAGCACATTTT 480
Query 507 GCGCTTGCAACCAGCTAAAGAGGCCAGCAATCCATCAAGACCTTCTTCTCACTTTTGACC 566
|||
Sbjct 481 GCGCTTGCAACCAGCTAAAGAGGCCAGCAATCCATCAAGACCTTCTTCTCACTTTTGACC 540
Query 567 TCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAA 598
|||
Sbjct 541 TCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAA 572

```

Cochliobolus eragrostidis strain NBRC 32566 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, complete sequence; and internal transcribed spacer 2, partial sequence

```

Sequence ID: gi|363544608|gb|JN943448.1|Length: 572Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
1057 bits(572) 0.0 572/572 (100%) 0/572 (0%) Plus/Plus
Query 26 TCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAAAATATGAAGGCTGCAACCGCC 85
|||
Sbjct 1 TCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAAAATATGAAGGCTGCAACCGCC 60
Query 86 AGTTTTGGCGGGGAAGCTGAATTATTTTTCACCCATGTCTTTTGGCGACTTGTGTTTCC 145
|||
Sbjct 61 AGTTTTGGCGGGGAAGCTGAATTATTTTTCACCCATGTCTTTTGGCGACTTGTGTTTCC 120
Query 146 TGGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCACCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCA 205
|||
Sbjct 121 TGGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCACCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCA 180
Query 206 GCGTCAGTATAACAAATGTAATATCATTTCACACTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGG 265
|||
Sbjct 181 GCGTCAGTATAACAAATGTAATATCATTTCACACTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGG 240
Query 266 CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC 325
|||
Sbjct 241 CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC 300
Query 326 ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGC 385
|||
Sbjct 301 ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGC 360
Query 386 GTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGGCTTTTGCCCA 445
|||
Sbjct 361 GTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGGCTTTTGCCCA 420
Query 446 AAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGGAGCGCAGCACATTTT 505
|||
Sbjct 421 AAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGGAGCGCAGCACATTTT 480
Query 506 GCGCTTGCAACCAGCTAAAGAGGCCAGCAATCCATCAAGACCTTCTTCTCACTTTTGACC 565
|||
Sbjct 481 GCGCTTGCAACCAGCTAAAGAGGCCAGCAATCCATCAAGACCTTCTTCTCACTTTTGACC 540
Query 566 TCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAA 597
|||
Sbjct 541 TCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAA 572

```

Cochliobolus lunatus isolate CATAS-CL01 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

```

Sequence ID: gi|241912467|gb|GQ169765.1|Length: 562Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
1038 bits(562) 0.0 562/562 (100%) 0/562 (0%) Plus/Plus
Query 25 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAATACAATATGAAGGCTTCGGCTGGA 84
|||
Sbjct 1 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAAATACAATATGAAGGCTTCGGCTGGA 60
Query 85 TTATTTATTTACCCCTTGTCTTTTGGCAGTGTGTTTCTGGGCGGGTTCGCCCCCA 144
|||
Sbjct 61 TTATTTATTTACCCCTTGTCTTTTGGCAGTGTGTTTCTGGGCGGGTTCGCCCCCA 120
Query 145 CCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTTTGTAAATGCAGTCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAA 204
|||
Sbjct 121 CCAGGACCACACCATAAACCTTTTTTGTAAATGCAGTCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAA 180
Query 205 ATCATTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGA 264
|||
Sbjct 181 ATCATTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGA 240
Query 265 AATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACAT 324
|||
Sbjct 241 AATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACAT 300
Query 325 TGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTT 384
|||
Sbjct 301 TGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTT 360
Query 385 TGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGCTCGCCAAAGACTCGCTTAAACGATTGGCAG 444
|||
Sbjct 361 TGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTGTCTTTGCTCGCCAAAGACTCGCTTAAACGATTGGCAG 420
Query 445 CCGACCTCTTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACAAATTTGCGCTTGCAAATCAGCAAGTTGGCAC 504
|||
Sbjct 421 CCGACCTCTTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACAAATTTGCGCTTGCAAATCAGCAAGTTGGCAC 480
Query 505 TCCATCAAGAACATTTTCTTACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTT 564
|||
Sbjct 481 TCCATCAAGAACATTTTCTTACGTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTT 540
Query 565 AAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA 586

```

```

|||||
Sbjct 541 AAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA 562

Colletotrichum hippeastri strain CBS241.78 small subunit ribosomal RNA gene, partial
sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal
transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence
Sequence ID: gi|399223736|gb|JX010293.1|Length: 612Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
1096 bits(593) 0.0 603/608 (99%) 0/608 (0%) Plus/Plus
Query 7 GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACTGAGT 66
|||||
Sbjct 5 GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACTGAGT 64
Query 67 TACCGCTCTATAACCCCTTGTGAACATACCTACAACCTGTTGCTTCGGCGGGTAGGCCGTC 126
|||||
Sbjct 65 TACCGCTCTATAACCCCTTGTGAACATACCTACAACCTGTTGCTTCGGCGGGTAGGCCGTC 124
Query 127 CCGTGAAAAGGACGCGCTCCCGCCCCGGCCCGGACCCCTCGCGGGAACGACCCGGCGCCC 186
|||||
Sbjct 125 CCGTGAAAAGGACGCGCTCCCGCCCCGGCCCGGACCCCGCGGGGACGACCCGGCGCCC 184
Query 187 GCCGGAGGATAACCAAACCTCTGTTTTAACGACGTTTTCTTCTGAGTGGCATAAGCAAAATA 246
|||||
Sbjct 185 GCCGGAGGATAACCAAACCCCTGTTTTAACGACGTTTTCTTCTGAGTGGCATAAGCAAAATA 244
Query 247 ATCAAACTTTTAAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATG 306
|||||
Sbjct 245 ATCAAACTTTTAAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATG 304
Query 307 CGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCG 366
|||||
Sbjct 305 CGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCG 364
Query 367 CCCGCCAGCATTCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCT 426
|||||
Sbjct 365 CCCGCCAGCATTCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCT 424
Query 427 TGGTGTGGGGCTCTACGGTTGACGTAGGCCCCCAAGGTAGTGGCGGACCCCTCCCGGAG 486
|||||
Sbjct 425 TGGTGTGGGGCTCTACGGTCGACGTAGGCCCCCAAGGTAGTGGCGGACCCCTCCCGGAG 484
Query 487 CCTCCTTTGCGTAGTAACATTTTCGCTCGCACTGGGATCCGGAGGGACTCTTGCCGTAAA 546
|||||
Sbjct 485 CCTCCTTTGCGTAGTAACATTTTCGCTCGCACTGGGATCCGGAGGGACTCTTGCCGTAAA 544
Query 547 ACCCCCCAATTTTCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCA 606
|||||
Sbjct 545 ACCCCCCAATTTTCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCA 604
Query 607 TATCAATA 614
|||||
Sbjct 605 TATCAATA 612

```

```

Colletotrichum sp. NFCCI 1611 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal
transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2,
complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence
Sequence ID: gb|JN390940.1|Length: 595Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
1099 bits(595) 0.0 595/595 (100%) 0/595 (0%) Plus/Plus
Query 1 TAACAAGGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACTGAGTTACCGCTCTATAAC 60
|||||
Sbjct 1 TAACAAGGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACTGAGTTACCGCTCTATAAC 60
Query 61 CCTTTGTGAACATACCTACAACCTGTTGCTTCGCGGGTAGGCCGTCCCCTGAAAAGGACG 120
|||||
Sbjct 61 CCTTTGTGAACATACCTACAACCTGTTGCTTCGCGGGTAGGCCGTCCCCTGAAAAGGACG 120
Query 121 CCTccccgccccgaccgaccccccgggaccggaccgccccgccccggaGGATAACC 180
|||||
Sbjct 121 CCTCCCGCCCCGGACCGACCCCGCGGGACCGGACCCGGCGCCCCGGAGGATAACC 180
Query 181 AAACCTATTGTAACGACGTTTCTTCTGAGTGGCATAAGCAAAATAATCAAACTTTTAA 240
|||||
Sbjct 181 AAACCTATTGTAACGACGTTTCTTCTGAGTGGCATAAGCAAAATAATCAAACTTTTAA 240
Query 241 CAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTG 300
|||||
Sbjct 241 CAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTG 300
Query 301 AATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTCGCGCCGCCAGCATTCT 360
|||||
Sbjct 301 AATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTCGCGCCGCCAGCATTCT 360
Query 361 GGCGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGGCTC 420
|||||
Sbjct 361 GGCGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGGCTC 420
Query 421 TACGGTCGACGTAGGCCCTCAAAGGTAGTGGCGGACCCCTCCCGGAGCCTCCTTTGCGTAG 480
|||||
Sbjct 421 TACGGTCGACGTAGGCCCTCAAAGGTAGTGGCGGACCCCTCCCGGAGCCTCCTTTGCGTAG 480
Query 481 TAACATTTGCTCTCGCACTGGGATCCGGAGGGACTCTTGCCGTAAAACCCCAATTTTC 540
|||||
Sbjct 481 TAACATTTGCTCTCGCACTGGGATCCGGAGGGACTCTTGCCGTAAAACCCCAATTTTC 540
Query 541 CAAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATA 595
|||||
Sbjct 541 CAAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATA 595

```

Curvularia sp. TMS-2011 voucher SC16dlp11-2 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383382|gb|HQ631061.1|Length: 629Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1088 bits (611)	0.0	614/615 (99%)		1/615 (0%)	
Query	3	GGAAGTAAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAA			62
Sbjct	16	GGAAGT-AAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAA			74
Query	63	TAAACATATGAAGGCTGCACCGCCAACAGGCGCAAGGCTGGAGTATTTTATTACCCTTG			122
Sbjct	75	TAAACATATGAAGGCTGCACCGCCAACAGGCGCAAGGCTGGAGTATTTTATTACCCTTG			134
Query	123	TCTTTTGCGCACTTGTGTGTTTCTGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCTCCAGGACCACATGATAAA			182
Sbjct	135	TCTTTTGCGCACTTGTGTGTTTCTGGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCTCCAGGACCACATGATAAA			194
Query	183	CCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTC			242
Sbjct	195	CCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCAGTACAACAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTC			254
Query	243	AACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTG			302
Sbjct	255	AACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTG			314
Query	303	TGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATT			362
Sbjct	315	TGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATT			374
Query	363	CCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCAATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGGG			422
Sbjct	375	CCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCAATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGGG			434
Query	423	TTTTTTGTCTTTGGTTTTGTCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTG			482
Sbjct	435	TTTTTTGTCTTTGGTTTTGTCCAAAGACTCGCCTTAAACGATTTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTG			494
Query	483	GTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCGTTGCAATCAGCAAAGAGGACGGCCTCCATCA			542
Sbjct	495	GTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCGCGTTGCAATCAGCAAAGAGGACGGCCTCCATCA			554
Query	543	AGACTCTATATCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATAT			602
Sbjct	555	AGACTCTATATCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATAT			614
Query	603	CAATAAGCGGAGGAA			617
Sbjct	615	CAATAAGCGGAGGAA			629

Curvularia sp. HSAUP074064 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|239586345|gb|GQ184733.1|Length: 589Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1088 bits (589)	0.0	589/589 (100%)		0/589 (0%)	
Query	28	TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATAAACATATGAAGGCTGCACCGCCA			87
Sbjct	1	TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGGATCATTACACAATAAACATATGAAGGCTGCACCGCCA			60
Query	88	ACAGGCGGCAAGGCTGGAGTATTTTATTACCCTTGTCTTTTGCACACTTGTGTTTCTCG			147
Sbjct	61	ACAGGCGGCAAGGCTGGAGTATTTTATTACCCTTGTCTTTTGCACACTTGTGTTTCTCG			120
Query	148	GGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCTCCAGGACCACATGATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGC			207
Sbjct	121	GGCGGGTTCGCCCGCCTCCAGGACCACATGATAAACCTTTTTTATGCAGTTGCAATCAGC			180
Query	208	GTCAGTACAACAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCA			267
Sbjct	181	GTCAGTACAACAATGTAATCATTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCA			240
Query	268	TCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCAT			327
Sbjct	241	TCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATACGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCAT			300
Query	328	CGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGT			387
Sbjct	301	CGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTTGGTATTCCAAAGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGT			360
Query	388	CATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTTTGTCTTTGGTTTTGTCCAAA			447
Sbjct	361	CATTTGTACCCTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTTTTTTGTCTTTGGTTTTGTCCAAA			420
Query	448	GACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCG			507
Sbjct	421	GACTCGCCTTAAACGATTGGCAGCCGGCCTACTGGTTTCGAGCGCAGCACATTTTTCG			480
Query	508	GCTTGCAATCAGCAAAGAGGACGGCACTCCATCAAGACTCTATATCACTTTTGACCTCG			567
Sbjct	481	GCTTGCAATCAGCAAAGAGGACGGCACTCCATCAAGACTCTATATCACTTTTGACCTCG			540
Query	568	GATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA			616

Dothideomycetes sp. TMS-2011 voucher SC10d50p8-8 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383329|gb|HQ631008.1|

Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand

	896 bits (485)	0.0	581/627 (93%)	8/627 (1%)	Plus/Plus	
Query	4	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCGGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTGTG				63
Sbjct	16	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCGGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTTTG				75
Query	64	GCCGCCGTGAACGCTCCGGCGCGAGCGACGGCCATTCTCTAGCGACGCTCCACGTCCGG				123
Sbjct	76	GCTGCCGTGAGCGCTTCGGCGTGAGCGACAGTCATTCTATAGCGATGCCCTCCGTGTCCGG				135
Query	124	GAAACCGGC-TGGGGCTGACCTAACCTTCTCTACGGTACCTCTG-TTCTCCTTCGGCG				181
Sbjct	136	GAAACCGGC-GGGGGCTGACCTAACCTTCTCTACGAGTACCTATCATTCTCCTTCGGCG				195
Query	182	GGCTCGTCTCGCCGCTGGAACCTCACGAACCAACTTGCATTTAGCATTATCTGTTCTGATA				241
Sbjct	196	GGG-CAACCCGCGCTGGAACCTAAGAACCAACTTGCATTTAGCATTACCTGTTCTGATA				254
Query	242	ACAATCAATTGTTACAACCTTCAACAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				301
Sbjct	255	ACAATTAATTATTACAACCTTCAACAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				314
Query	302	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				361
Sbjct	315	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				374
Query	362	GCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGCGATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCAATTTACACCTC				421
Sbjct	375	GCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGCGATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCACTACACCTC				434
Query	422	AAGCACTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTCTGTCCCGCG-CGCGCGTGGACTCGCCCCAAAGGCA				480
Sbjct	435	AAGCACTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTCTGTCCCGCCTTCGCGCGTGGACTCGCCCCAAAGTCA				494
Query	481	TTGGCAGCGTCTCTGGCACCTCAACGCGCAGTACATTGCGTACGTTGGG-TGTCGACGG				539
Sbjct	495	TTGGCAGCGTCTCTGGCACCTCAACGCGCAGTACAATGCGTTCATTGGGGTCCGTGGG				554
Query	540	ACGCAACCACAAAGCTAATCACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAA				599
Sbjct	555	-CGCGTCCAT-AAGCTATTTACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAA				612
Query	600	CTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCCGGAGGAA				626
Sbjct	613	CTTAAGCATATCAATAAGC-GGAGGAA				638

Dothideomycetes sp. genotype 189 isolate FL0014 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|387352752|gb|JQ759890.1|Length: 1134Number of Matches: 1

	Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
	1101 bits (596)	0.0	596/596 (100%)	0/596 (0%)			
Query	52	GATCATTACAAGTTGAAACGGTTGCCCTCGCGGTGACCGGTTCTTCAAACCTCTGCGTAC					111
Sbjct	1	GATCATTACAAGTTGAAACGGTTGCCCTCGCGGTGACCGGTTCTTCAAACCTCTGCGTAC					60
Query	112	CAAACCTTTTCAGTTGCCTCCGGCGGCCTGGGCCGACGCGGCGCGACCTCCCCGTTTCG					171
Sbjct	61	CAAACCTTTTCAGTTGCCTCCGGCGGCCTGGGCCGACGCGGCGCGACCTCCCCGTTTCG					120
Query	172	CgggggggCCGCTCCTCGCGCGGACCACCCCGGGCGGTGATAAACAAAACCTTTTGT					231
Sbjct	121	CGGGGGGCGCTCCTCGCGCGGACCACCCCGGGCGGTGATAAACAAAACCTTTTGT					180
Query	232	CGAGATGGCATCGTCTAATTTCTTCAACACAATATGAAATACAACCTTTTAAACATGGA					291
Sbjct	181	CGAGATGGCATCGTCTAATTTCTTCAACACAATATGAAATACAACCTTTTAAACATGGA					240
Query	292	TCTCTTGGCTCCGGCATCGATGAAGAACGACGCGAAATGCGATAACTAGTGTGAATTGCA					351
Sbjct	241	TCTCTTGGCTCCGGCATCGATGAAGAACGACGCGAAATGCGATAACTAGTGTGAATTGCA					300
Query	352	GATTTAGTGAATCATCGAGTCTTTGACGCACATTGCGCCTCTTGGTATTCTCGAGGC					411
Sbjct	301	GATTTAGTGAATCATCGAGTCTTTGACGCACATTGCGCCTCTTGGTATTCTCGAGGC					360
Query	412	ATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCTTACGCCCTCAAGCGCAAGCTTGGTGTGGGGATCGCCCT					471
Sbjct	361	ATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCTTACGCCCTCAAGCGCAAGCTTGGTGTGGGGATCGCCCT					420
Query	472	GAGATACGGCGCGGCCTTAAATGCATCGCGGTGCTGGTGTGAGCCCGGAGCGCAGCA					531
Sbjct	421	GAGATACGGCGCGGCCTTAAATGCATCGCGGTGCTGGTGTGAGCCCGGAGCGCAGCA					480
Query	532	GACATGCGGCTTCCAGGCGACCACGCGCCCGGACAACGACCCGACTTTCAAACGTCG					591
Sbjct	481	GACATGCGGCTTCCAGGCGACCACGCGCCCGGACAACGACCCGACTTTCAAACGTCG					540
Query	592	ACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA					647
Sbjct	541	ACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA					596

Fungal endophyte sp. g88 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|300872433|gb|HM537063.1|Length: 573Number of Matches: 1

	Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
	994 bits (538)	0.0	552/559 (99%)	0/559 (0%)			
Query	2	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCGGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTCA					61

Sbjct	15	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTCA	74	
Query	62	GTAGCCTAGCTACTTGTTTACACCCTTGTTTTTTGGCGTACCTATCGTTTCCTCGGCAGG	121	
Sbjct	75	GTAGCCAGCTACTTGTTTACACCCTTGTTTTTTGGGTACCTATCGTTTCCTCGGCAGG	134	
Query	122	CTTGCCTGCCGGCTGGACACCTTTATAACCTTTTAAATCTTCAATCAGCGTCTGAATAA	181	
Sbjct	135	CTTGCCTGCCGGTTGGACAACCTTTATAACCTTTTAAATCTTCAATCAGCGTCTGAACAA	194	
Query	182	TATACAATAATTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAAGC	241	
Sbjct	195	TATACAATAATTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAAGC	254	
Query	242	AGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACG	301	
Sbjct	255	AGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACG	314	
Query	302	CACATTGGCCCCCTTGGTATTTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTCA	361	
Sbjct	315	CACATTGGCCCCCTTGGTATTTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTCA	374	
Query	362	AGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGCTTGTCTTTTTGTGAAGACTCACCTCAAAGTCAATTGGCA	421	
Sbjct	375	AGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGCTTGTCTTTTTGTGAAGACTCACCTCAAAGTCAATTGGCA	434	
Query	422	GCCAGTGTTTTGGTAGTAAGCGCAGCACATTTTGCCTTGGTCCCTCAACAGCGGCATC	481	
Sbjct	435	GCCAGTGTTTTGGTAGTAAGCGCAGCACATTTTGCCTTGGTCCCTCAACAGCGGCATC	494	
Query	482	CATCAAGCCATTTTCTCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAG	541	
Sbjct	495	CATCAAGCCATTTTCTCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAG	554	
Query	542	CATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA	560	
Sbjct	555	CATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA	573	

Fungal sp. ARIZ B233 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|223006334|gb|FJ612966.1|Length: 563Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1037 bits(561)	0.0	561/561(100%)	0/561(0%)			
Query	1	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTAAAGAGT				60
Sbjct	3	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTAAAGAGT				62
Query	61	TATAACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGTGAACATACCTCATGTTGCCTCGGCAGGTCCGCGCCTCG				120
Sbjct	63	TATAACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGTGAACATACCTCATGTTGCCTCGGCAGGTCCGCGCCTCG				122
Query	121	GTGCCCTGCCGGCGGCCACGAAACTCTGTTTAGCATTAAATCTGAACTTATAACTAAA				180
Sbjct	123	GTGCCCTGCCGGCGGCCACGAAACTCTGTTTAGCATTAAATCTGAACTTATAACTAAA				182
Query	181	TCAGTTAAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACCAGCGGAA				240
Sbjct	183	TCAGTTAAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACCAGCGGAA				242
Query	241	ATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATT				300
Sbjct	243	ATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATT				302
Query	301	GCGCCATTAGTATTCTAGTGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAGCCCT				360
Sbjct	303	GCGCCATTAGTATTCTAGTGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAGCCCT				362
Query	361	CGTTGCTTAGCGTTGGGAGCCTACAAGCACTGTAGCTCCCCAAAGTTAGTGGCGGAGTCG				420
Sbjct	363	CGTTGCTTAGCGTTGGGAGCCTACAAGCACTGTAGCTCCCCAAAGTTAGTGGCGGAGTCG				422
Query	421	GTTACACCCCCAGACGTAGTAAGATTTACCTCGCCTGTAGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGCGG				480
Sbjct	423	GTTACACCCCCAGACGTAGTAAGATTTACCTCGCCTGTAGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGCGG				482
Query	481	TAAAACACATAATTTTCTCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTA				540
Sbjct	483	TAAAACACATAATTTTCTCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACCTA				542
Query	541	AGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA				561
Sbjct	543	AGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA				563

Fusarium equiseti isolate H02-765S 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|192758036|gb|EU595566.1|Length: 1156Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1059 bits(573)	0.0	573/573(100%)	0/573(0%)			
Query	4	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACCGAGT				63
Sbjct	1	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACCGAGT				60
Query	64	TTACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGTGAACATACCTATACGTTGCCTCGGCGGATCAGCCCGCGC				123
Sbjct	61	TTACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGTGAACATACCTATACGTTGCCTCGGCGGATCAGCCCGCGC				120
Query	124	CCCGTAAAACGGGACGGCCCGCCGAGACCCCTAAACTCTGTTTTAGTGGAACTTCTG				183

Sbjct	121	CCCGTAAAACGGGACGGCCCGCCGAGGACCCCTAAACTCTGTTTTAGTGGAACTTCTG	180	
Query	184	AGTAAAACAAACAAATAAATCAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTGGTCTGGCATCGAT	243	
Sbjct	181	AGTAAAACAAACAAATAAATCAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTGGTCTGGCATCGAT	240	
Query	244	GAAGAACGCAGCAAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTGAGTGAATCATCGAAT	303	
Sbjct	241	GAAGAACGCAGCAAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTGAGTGAATCATCGAAT	300	
Query	304	CTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTATTCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTT	363	
Sbjct	301	CTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTATTCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTT	360	
Query	364	CAACCCTCAAGCTCAGCTTGGTGTGGGACTCGCGGTAACCCGCGTTCCCAAAATCGATT	423	
Sbjct	361	CAACCCTCAAGCTCAGCTTGGTGTGGGACTCGCGGTAACCCGCGTTCCCAAAATCGATT	420	
Query	424	GGCGGTACGTCGAGCTTCATAGCGTAGTAATCATAACCTCGTTACTGGTAAATCGTGC	483	
Sbjct	421	GGCGGTACGTCGAGCTTCATAGCGTAGTAATCATAACCTCGTTACTGGTAAATCGTGC	480	
Query	484	CGGCCACGCCGTAAAACCCCAACTTCTGAATGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCG	543	
Sbjct	481	CGGCCACGCCGTAAAACCCCAACTTCTGAATGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCG	540	
Query	544	CTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAAAA	576	
Sbjct	541	CTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAAAA	573	

Guignardia mangiferae isolate MFUCC120015 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|528747898|gb|KC686598.1|Length: 882Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1190 bits(644)	0.0	659/666(99%)	1/666(0%)			
Query	5	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACTGTGA				64
Sbjct	122	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACTGAAA				181
Query	65	TGTAATAACTTCTATTGTAAGGTTCCAGAGTAGGCGCTACAACGCCGAAATGACCTTCTC				124
Sbjct	182	TGTAATAACTTCTATTGAAAGGTTCCAGAGTAGGCGCTACAACGCCGAAATGACCTTCTC				241
Query	125	ACCCTTGTGTACTCACTATGTTGTTTTGGCGGGTCGACCTGGTTCGACCCATGCGGCCG				184
Sbjct	242	ACCCCTGTGTACTCACTATGTTGCTTTGGCGGGTCGACCTGGTTCGACCCAGGCGGCCG				301
Query	185	GGCCCCCAGCCTTAACTGGCCAGGACGCCCGGCTAAGTGCCCGCCAGTATACAAAACCTC				244
Sbjct	302	GGCCCCCAGCCTTAACTGGCCAGGACGCCCGGCTAAGTGCCCGCCAGTATACAAAACCTC				361
Query	245	AAGAATTCATATTGTGAAGTCCTGATATATCATTTAATTGATTTAAAACCTTCAACAACG				304
Sbjct	362	AAGAATTCATATTGTGAAGTCCTGATATATCATTTAATTGATTTAAAACCTTCAACAACG				421
Query	305	GATCTCTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTG				364
Sbjct	422	GATCTCTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTG				481
Query	365	CAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTCTGGTATTCCGGAGG				424
Sbjct	482	CAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTCTGGTATTCCGGAGG				541
Query	425	GCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGTCG				484
Sbjct	542	GCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGTCG				601
Query	485	CTGCCGACGTGCCTTGAAGACCTCGGCGACGGCGTCTAGCCTCGAGCGTAGTAGTAAA				544
Sbjct	602	CTGCCGACGTGCCTTGAAGACCTCGGCGACGGCGTCTAGCCTCGAGCGTAGTAGTAAA				661
Query	545	ATATCTCGCTTGGAGTGTGGGCGACGGCCCGGACAATCGACCTTCGGTCTATTTT				604
Sbjct	662	ATATCTCGCTTGGAGTGTGGGCGACGGCCCGGACAATCGACCTTCGGTCTATTTT				721
Query	605	CCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAG-CG				663
Sbjct	722	CCAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGGCG				781
Query	664	GAGGAA				669
Sbjct	782	GAGGAA				787

Guignardia mangiferae isolate XSD-43 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gb|EU273524.1|Length: 663Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1192 bits(645)	0.0	647/648(99%)	0/648(0%)			
Query	117	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACTGAAA				176
Sbjct	1	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACTGAAA				60
Query	177	TGTAATAACTTCTATTGAAAGGTTCCAGAGTAGGCGCTACAACGCCGAAATGACCTTCTC				236
Sbjct	61	TGTAATAACTTCTATTGAAAGGTTCCAGAGTAGGCGCTACAACGCCGAAATGACCTTCTC				120
Query	237	ACCTTGTGTACTCACTATGTTGCTTTGGCGGGTCGACCTGGTTCGACCCAGGCGGCCG				296

```

Sbjct 121 ACCCTTGTGTACTACTACTATGTTGCTTTGGCGGGTCGACCTGGTTCGACCCAGGCGGCCG 180
Query 297 GCGCCCCCAGCCTTAACTGGCCAGGACGCCCCGGCTAAGTGCCCGCCAGTATACAAAACCTC 356
|||||
Sbjct 181 GCGCCCCCAGCCTTAACTGGCCAGGACGCCCCGGCTAAGTGCCCGCCAGTATACAAAACCTC 240
Query 357 AAGAATTCATTTTGTGAAGTCCTGATATATCATTTAATTGATTAAAACTTTCACAACCGG 416
|||||
Sbjct 241 AAGAATTCATTTTGTGAAGTCCTGATATATCATTTAATTGATTAAAACTTTCACAACCGG 300
Query 417 ATCTCTTGGTTCGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGC 476
|||||
Sbjct 301 ATCTCTTGGTTCGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGC 360
Query 477 AGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTCTGGTATTCCGGAGGG 536
|||||
Sbjct 361 AGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTCTGGTATTCCGGAGGG 420
Query 537 CATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGTCGCG 596
|||||
Sbjct 421 CATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTATTGGGCAACGTCGCG 480
Query 597 TGCCGGACGTGCCTTGAAGACCTCGGCGACGGCGTCTAGCCTCGAGCGTAGTAGTAAAA 656
|||||
Sbjct 481 TGCCGGACGTGCCTTGAAGACCTCGGCGACGGCGTCTAGCCTCGAGCGTAGTAGTAAAA 540
Query 657 TATCTCGCTTTGGAGTGTGGGCGACGGCTGCCGACAATCGACCTTCGGTCTATTTTTC 716
|||||
Sbjct 541 TATCTCGCTTTGGAGTGTGGGCGACGGCGGACAATCGACCTTCGGTCTATTTTTC 600
Query 717 CAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATA 764
|||||
Sbjct 601 CAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATA 648

```

Letendreaea helminthicola strain F158 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|406780888|gb|JQ026217.1|Length: 724Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	
1221 bits(661)	0.0	667/670 (99%)	0/670 (0%)	Plus/Plus	
Query	14	CGTAACAAGGTTTTTCGTAGGGGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTTTCACAACAACGAT			73
Sbjct	1	CGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTTTCACAACAACGAT			60
Query	74	GGCGTCGTCCTTAGAACCGTCTCCGTGCGGCTCGGGCGGCGTTTCATCAGCGGGCACGT			133
Sbjct	61	GGCGTCGTCCTTAGAACCGTCTCCGTGCGGCTCGGGCGGCGTTTCATCAGCGGGCACGT			120
Query	134	CGCGGCTTCCTGTTTTTCAGGAAGTAATCCCATCTAGAATGGACTCACGCGGGTTCGTCTG			193
Sbjct	121	CGCGGCTTCCTGTTTTTCAGGAAGTAATCCCATCTAGAATGGACTCACGCGGGTTCGTCTG			180
Query	194	AATCCTTAACTTTACGAGAACTCCCCATACTCCTTCGGTGGGGTGACCTGCCGTTGGAAC			253
Sbjct	181	AATCCTTAACTTTACGAGAACTCCCCATACTCCTTCGGTGGGGTGACCTGCCGTTGGAAC			240
Query	254	CAACAAAACCTtttttttGCATCTAGCATTACCTGTTCTGATACAAAACAATCGTTACAA			313
Sbjct	241	CAACAAAACCTTTTTTTCATCTAGCATTACCTGTTCTGATACAAAACAATCGTTACAA			300
Query	314	TTTCAACAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGT			373
Sbjct	301	TTTCAACAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGT			360
Query	374	AGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGG			433
Sbjct	361	AGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGG			420
Query	434	TATCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATCTACACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTG			493
Sbjct	421	TATCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATCTACACCCTCAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTG			480
Query	494	GGCGTCTGTCCCGCCTCCGCGGTGGACTCGCCCAAATTCATTGGCAGCGGTCTTCTTG			553
Sbjct	481	GGCGTCTGTCCCGCCTCCGCGGTGGACTCGCCCAAATTCATTGGCAGCGGTCTTCTTG			540
Query	554	CCCCCTCTCGCGCAGCACATTGCGTTTTCTCGAGGGTGGCGGGCCGCTCCACGAAGCAAC			613
Sbjct	541	CCCCCTCTCGCGCAGCACATTGCGTTTTCTCGAGGGTGGCGGGCCGCTCCACGAAGCAAC			600
Query	614	ATTACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAAATTAAGCATATCAATA			673
Sbjct	601	ATTACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAAATTAAGCATATCAATA			660
Query	674	AGCGGAGGAA			683
Sbjct	661	AGCGGAGGAA			670

Minimidochium sp. TMS-2011 voucher MS3p_50-45 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383295|gb|HQ630974.1|Length: 581Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	
909 bits(492)	0.0	551/577 (95%)	13/577 (2%)	Plus/Plus	
Query	5	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACAGGAC			64
Sbjct	16	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACAGGAC			75
Query	65	GTCACACTCCCATAATACCACGTGAATCTTACCTACCGTTCGCTCGGCGGGTTCGG			124

Sbjct	76		GTCATACTCCCGTAATACCACGTGTAATCTTACCTACCGTCGTTGCCTCGGCGGG--C-G	132
Query	125		TCCCCCTCGGGGGCGCCCGCGGCGCCGCATACTCTGTCTCAGCGTGTGGCATCTC	184
Sbjct	133	-----	CTC--CGCGCGCCCGCGGCGCCCGCATACTCTGTCTCAGCGTGTGGCATCTC	185
Query	185		CGAGTACAATACAAACGAGTCAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGAT	244
Sbjct	186		CGAGTATTATACAAACGAGTCAAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGAT	245
Query	245		GAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAAGTGAATCATCGAAT	304
Sbjct	246		GAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAAGTGAATCATCGAAT	305
Query	305		CTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTATCCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGGTCATTT	364
Sbjct	306		CTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTATCCTGGCGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGGTCATTT	365
Query	365		CAACCCCAAGCCCCCGCGGCTTGGTGTGGAGGCTGCGCACCCGACGCTCCCAAAGAC	424
Sbjct	366		CAACCCCAAGCCCCCGCGGCTTGGTGTGGGGACCTGCGCACCCGACGCCCCCTAAAGAC	425
Query	425		AGCGGCGGGCGTGGCTGGCACCGAAGCTAGTAGACTCTCTCTCGTTGCGGGTCCAGGGC	484
Sbjct	426		AGCGGCGGGCGTGGCTGGCACCGAAGCTAGTAGACTCTCTCTCGTTGCGGGTCCAGTTC	485
Query	485		GCGCTTCCGGCCGGTAAACCCCATCTTTTA-CG-TGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAA	542
Sbjct	486		GCGC-TCCGGCCGGTAAACCCCATCTTTTAACAATGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAA	544
Query	543		TACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA	579
Sbjct	545		TACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA	581

Montagnulaceae sp. HJ15H 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|485185712|gb|KC291642.1|Length: 721Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1325 bits(717)	0.0	720/721 (99%)		1/721 (0%)	
Query	40	TGCGGAGGGATCATTATTCATTACAGTAAGCCTATGGCTTCGGGGGCGAACAAGCCAGGC			99
Sbjct	2	TGCGGAGGGATCATTATTCATTACAGTAAGCCTATGGCTTCGGGGGCGAACAAGCCAGGC			61
Query	100	GCGGTCGACCCCTTCGGGGCGTGGCAGCGTCGCGGCTCCCCGAATCGTTATGCTTTAGCGG			159
Sbjct	62	GCGGTCGACCCCTTCGGGGCGTGGCAGCGTCGCGGCTCCCCGAATCGTTATGCTTTAGCGG			121
Query	160	GTGTGTTGCGGCCCTCGAGGCCCGGACCGGCTCGACAGTGGTCAGCCGGCACGGGAACC			219
Sbjct	122	GTGTGTTGCGGCCCTCGAGGCCCGGACCGGCTCGACAGTGGTCAGCCGGCACGGGAACC			181
Query	220	AGCTCCGGGAGGTGTAGGGCTCCTCGTGGAGCCCTTTCACGCGCACATGACTGAATCCTT			279
Sbjct	182	AGCTCCGGGAGGTGTAGGGCTCCTCGTGGAGCCCTTTCACGCGCACATGACTGAATCCTT			241
Query	280	ACTCTACTCGTACCTCTCGTTCTCCCTCGGCGGGGCGACCTGCCGTGGGAACCGCAAAC			339
Sbjct	242	ACTCTACTCGTACCTCTCGTTCTCCCTCGGCGGGGCGACCTGCCGTGGGAACCGCAAAC			301
Query	340	GAACCCCTCTTTGCATCTAGCATTACCTGTTCCGATACCCACAATCGTTACAACCTTTCAA			399
Sbjct	302	GAACCCCTCTTTGCATCTAGCATTACCTGTTCCGATACCCACAATCGTTACAACCTTTCAA			361
Query	400	CAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTG			459
Sbjct	362	CAATGGATCTCTTGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTG			421
Query	460	AATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATGCGCCCTCGGTATTC			519
Sbjct	422	AATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATGCGCCCTCGGTATTC			481
Query	520	GTGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATCTACACCCCTAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTC			579
Sbjct	482	GTGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATCTACACCCCTAAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTC			541
Query	580	TGTCGCCCTCCTTCGCGCGCGGACTCGCCCCAAATCCATTGGCGGCGGCCCTTGCCCTCC			639
Sbjct	542	TGTCGCCCTCCTTCGCGCGCGGACTCGCCCCAAATCCATTGGCGGCGGCCCTTGCCCTCC			601
Query	640	CTCTCGCGCAGCACATTGCGCTTCTCGAGGCGCGGCGGACCGCTCCAGCAAGCAACCGT			699
Sbjct	602	CTCTCGCGCAGCACATTGCGCTTCTCGAGGCGCGGCGGACCGCTCCAGCAAGCAACCGT			661
Query	700	CACACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGATGCAGTAGGGATACCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATA			759
Sbjct	662	CACACCGTCTTTGACCTCGGAT-CAGGTAGGGATACCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATA			720
Query	760	A			760
Sbjct	721	A			721

Myrothecium sp. 2 TMS-2011 voucher SC8d10p9-5 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383388|gb|HQ631067.1|Length: 622Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1094 bits(592)	0.0	602/607 (99%)		0/607 (0%)	
Query	4	GGAAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGCTCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACCGAGT			63

Sbjct	16		75
Query	64	TTACAAACTCCCAACCCCTATGTGAACCTTACCTATCGTTGCTTCGGCGGGCTTAGCCCC	123
Sbjct	76		135
Query	124	TTACAAACTCCCAACCCCTATGTGAACCTTACCTATCGTTGCTTCGGCGGGCTTAGCCCC	183
Sbjct	136		195
Query	184	GCGCCTTCGCGGGCGCGGAAACAGGCGCCCGCGGAGACCCAAACTCAATGTTTTTCA	243
Sbjct	196		255
Query	244	TGCAGTATTATCTGAGTGGCAAACGCAAAAATAAATCAAACCTTTTAAACAACGGATCTCT	303
Sbjct	256		315
Query	304	TGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATT	363
Sbjct	316		375
Query	364	TGGCTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATT	423
Sbjct	376		435
Query	424	CAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCAGTATTCTCGCGGGCATGCC	483
Sbjct	436		495
Query	484	TGTCCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCCTCAGAGCTCGCTGCTTGTTCAGGCGGGCGCTGGTGT	543
Sbjct	496		555
Query	544	TGGGGATCGGCCTAAACGCGCTCCCCCAAATACAGTGGCGGTCTCGCTGCAGCTCCCT	603
Sbjct	556		615
Query	604	TGGGGATCGGCCTAAACGCGCTCCCCCAAATACAGTGGCGGTCTCGCTGCAGCTCCCT	610
Sbjct	616	GGAGGAA	622

Nemania primolutea isolate 91102001 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|122935533|gb|EF026121.1|Length: 582Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1064 bits(576)	0.0	580/582 (99%)	0/582 (0%)		
Query	28	TCCGTTGGTGAACCAGCGGAGGATCATTAAAGAGTTTTCTACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGT	87		
Sbjct	1		60		
Query	88	TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAGGATCATTAAAGAGTTTTCTACAACCTCCAAACCCCTGT	147		
Sbjct	61	GAACATACCTTCTGTTGCTTCGGCAGGCTCGCTACCTCGTAGCCCCCTACACCGTAG	120		
Query	148	GAACATACCTTCTGTTGCTTCGGCAGGCTCGCTACCTCGTAGCCCCCTACACCGTAG	207		
Sbjct	121	GGCCTACGCCGGTGGTGGCGGACCCCTGCCGGCGCCCGCGAAACTCTGTTTAGCACTG	180		
Query	208	GGCCTACGCCGGTGGTGGCGGACCCCTGCCGGCGCCCGCGAAACTCTGTTTAGCACTG	267		
Sbjct	181		240		
Query	268	AATCTCTGAACATATAACTAAATAAGTTAAAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTGGTTCTGG	327		
Sbjct	241	CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC	300		
Query	328	CATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATC	387		
Sbjct	301	ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCATTAGTATTCTAGTGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGC	360		
Query	388	ATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCATTAGTATTCTAGTGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGC	447		
Sbjct	361	GTCATTTCAACCCCTTAAGCCCCGTGCTTAGCGTTGGGAGCCTACGGCAGCGTAGCTCC	420		
Query	448	GTCATTTCAACCCCTTAAGCCCCGTGCTTAGCGTTGGGAGCCTACGGCAGCGTAGCTCC	507		
Sbjct	421	CCAAAGTTAGTGGCGTGGTTCGCTTCAACTCCAGACGTAGTAGATTTTCGCTTCGCCTGT	480		
Query	508	CCAAAGTTAGTGGCGTGGTTCGCTTCAACTCCAGACGTAGTAGATTTTCGCTTCGCCTGT	567		
Sbjct	481	AGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGCCGTAAAACACCCCAATTCTAAAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGG	540		
Query	568	AGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGCCGTAAAACACCCCAATTCTAAAAGGTTGACCTCGGATCAGG	609		
Sbjct	541	TAGGAATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA	582		

Nemania primolutea isolate FG9 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gb|KC845930.1|Length: 511Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
944 bits(511)	0.0	511/511 (100%)	0/511 (0%)		
Query	1	TGAACATACCTTCTGTTGCCTCGGCAGGCTCGCCTACCTCGTAGCCCCCTACACCGTA	60		
Sbjct	1		60		
Query	61	TGAACATACCTTCTGTTGCCTCGGCAGGCTCGCCTACCTCGTAGCCCCCTACACCGTA	120		

Sbjct	61	GGGCCTACGCCGGTGGTGC	120
Query	121	GAATCTCTGAACATATAA	180
Sbjct	121	GAATCTCTGAACATATAA	180
Query	181	GCATCGATGAAGAACGCA	240
Sbjct	181	GCATCGATGAAGAACGCA	240
Query	241	CATCGAATCTTTGAACGC	300
Sbjct	241	CATCGAATCTTTGAACGC	300
Query	301	CGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAG	360
Sbjct	301	CGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAG	360
Query	361	CCCAAAGTTAGTGGCGTGG	420
Sbjct	361	CCCAAAGTTAGTGGCGTGG	420
Query	421	TAGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGC	480
Sbjct	421	TAGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGC	480
Query	481	GTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACT	511
Sbjct	481	GTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACT	511

Paecilomyces sp. TMS-2011 voucher BGd1p19-17 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383362|gb|HQ631041.1|Length: 606Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
902 bits (488) 0.0 566/601 (94%) 15/601 (2%) Plus/Plus

Query	2	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGTTTGGAAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACAG	61
Sbjct	16	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTCTCCGTTGGT---GAACCAGCGGAGGGATCATTACAG	72
Query	62	AGTTGAAAAACTCCCCAACCATTTGTGAACC-TACCTTCCACCGTTGCTTCGGCGGGCGG	120
Sbjct	73	AGTTGAAAAACTCCCCAACCATTTGTGAACCTTACCTTCAACCGTTGCTTCGGCGGGCGG	132
Query	121	GCCCCAGCGccccccccggccccccccggggggcgccccggaggatgcacaaactctt	180
Sbjct	133	GCCACAGCG-CCCCCGGCCCCCCAGCGGGGCGCCCGCGGAGGATACCCAAACTCTT	191
Query	181	TGT-CATTAGCGGCCTCTCTGAGTCTT---TACTGAATAAGTCAAAACTTTCAACAACGG	236
Sbjct	192	GATACTTTAT-GGCCTCTCTGAGTCTTCTGTACTGAATAAGTCAAAACTTTCAACAACGG	250
Query	237	ATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCGAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGC	296
Sbjct	251	ATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCGAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGC	310
Query	297	AGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTACTCTGGCGGG	356
Sbjct	311	AGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCGCCAGTACTCTGGCGGG	370
Query	357	CATGCCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCATCAAGCCCCGGGCTGTGTGGGGACCTCGC	416
Sbjct	371	CATGCCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCATCAAGCCCCGGGCTGTGTGGGGACCTCGC	430
Query	417	GCTGCCCGCAGGCCCTGAAAAGCAGTGGCGGGCTCGCCGTCACGCCGAGCGTAGTAGCAA	476
Sbjct	431	GCTGCCCGCAGGCCCTGAAAACCAGTGGCGGGCTCGCTGTACACCCGAGCGTAGTAGC-A	489
Query	477	TCATCTCGCTCAGGGCGTGCTCGGGGCTCCGGCGTTAAACAACGCCTCTCAGGCCCAA	536
Sbjct	490	TCATCTCGCTCAGGGCGTGCTCGGGGTTCCGGCGGTTAAA----AGCCTCTAATACCCAA	545
Query	537	GGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAAGACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA	596
Sbjct	546	GGTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAAGACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGA	605
Query	597	A	597
Sbjct	606	A	606

Penicillium sp. HF12230 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|392514877|gb|JQ889696.1|Length: 580Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
1018 bits (551) 0.0 567/574 (99%) 4/574 (0%) Plus/Plus

Query	1	GAAGT-AAAAGTCGTAACAAGTTC	59
Sbjct	3	GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGTTC	62
Query	60	GCGGGCCCTCGCGGCCAACCTCCC	119
Sbjct	63	GCGGGCCCTCGCGGCCAACCTCCC	122
Query	120	CCACCGGGCCACCCGTCGCGGGGAC	178
Sbjct	123	CCACCGGGCCACCCGTCGCGGGGAC	182
Query	179	CTCTGTGAACCTGATGAAGATGGG	238

Sbjct	183		242
Query	239		298
Sbjct	243		302
Query	299		358
Sbjct	303		362
Query	359		418
Sbjct	363		422
Query	419		478
Sbjct	423		482
Query	479		537
Sbjct	483		542
Query	538		571
Sbjct	543		575

Phoma sp. TMS-2011 voucher MS5p50-9 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383284|gb|HQ630963.1|Length: 574Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1026 bits(555)	0.0	557/558 (99%)	0/558 (0%)		
Query	1	GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG			60
Sbjct	17	GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG			76
Query	61	TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCTCGGT			120
Sbjct	77	TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCTCGGT			136
Query	121	GGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAAAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGAAA			180
Sbjct	137	GGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAAAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGAAA			196
Query	181	AACTCAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGC			240
Sbjct	197	AACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGC			256
Query	241	AGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACG			300
Sbjct	257	AGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACG			316
Query	301	CACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTGACCTTCA			360
Sbjct	317	CACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTGACCTTCA			376
Query	361	AGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAACAATTTGGCAGCC			420
Sbjct	377	AGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAACAATTTGGCAGCC			436
Query	421	GGCGTATTGATTTCCGGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCGCTTGCACATATAACGACGACATCCA			480
Sbjct	437	GGCGTATTGATTTCCGGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCGCTTGCACATATAACGACGACATCCA			496
Query	481	AAAGTACATTTTACACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCA			540
Sbjct	497	AAAGTACATTTTACACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACCTAAGCA			556
Query	541	TATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA			558
Sbjct	557	TATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA			574

Phoma sp. TMS-2011 voucher MS5p50-9 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383284|gb|HQ630963.1|Length: 574Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1033 bits(559)	0.0	559/559 (100%)	0/559 (0%)		
Query	2	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGA			61
Sbjct	16	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGA			75
Query	62	GTTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCTCGG			121
Sbjct	76	GTTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCTCGG			135
Query	122	TGGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAAAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGAAA			181
Sbjct	136	TGGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAAAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGAAA			195
Query	182	AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG			241
Sbjct	196	AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG			255
Query	242	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC			301
Sbjct	256	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC			315
Query	302	GCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTGACCTTC			361

Sbjct	316		375
Query	362		421
Sbjct	376		435
Query	422		481
Sbjct	436		495
Query	482		541
Sbjct	496		555
Query	542		560
Sbjct	556		574

Phoma sp. P14E4 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|346654886|gb|JN207285.1|Length: 562Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1035 bits(560)	0.0	560/560 (100%)	0/560 (0%)			
Query	4	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGA				63
Sbjct	3	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGA				62
Query	64	GTTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGTAGTACCTTTCGTTTCCTCGG				123
Sbjct	63	GTTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGTAGTACCTTTCGTTTCCTCGG				122
Query	124	CGGGTCCGCCCGCCGATTGGACACATTCAAACCCCTTTCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCTGAAA				183
Sbjct	123	CGGGTCCGCCCGCCGATTGGACACATTCAAACCCCTTTCAGTTGCAATCAGCGTCTGAAA				182
Query	184	AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				243
Sbjct	183	AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				242
Query	244	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				303
Sbjct	243	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				302
Query	304	GCACATGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC				363
Sbjct	303	GCACATGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC				362
Query	364	AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCGCCTCTGCGCGCAGACTCGCCTCAAACAA				423
Sbjct	363	AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCGCCTCTGCGCGCAGACTCGCCTCAAACAA				422
Query	424	TTGGCAGCCGGCGTATTGATTTTCGGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCCTTTCGACTATAACGA				483
Sbjct	423	TTGGCAGCCGGCGTATTGATTTTCGGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCCTTTCGACTATAACGA				482
Query	484	CGACGATCCAAAAGTACATTTTACACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCT				543
Sbjct	483	CGACGATCCAAAAGTACATTTTACACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCT				542
Query	544	GAACTTAAGCATATCAATAA				563
Sbjct	543	GAACTTAAGCATATCAATAA				562

Phoma sp. CPO 10.003 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|378750663|gb|JQ388280.1|Length: 557Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus	
1020 bits(552)	0.0	557/559 (99%)	2/559 (0%)			
Query	5	GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG				64
Sbjct	1	GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG				60
Query	65	TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGTAGTACCTTACGTTTCCTCGGT				124
Sbjct	61	TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGCTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGTAGTACCTTACGTTTCCTCGGT				120
Query	125	GGGTTGCCACCAGGATTGGACAAATTTAAACCCCTTTCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGaaa				184
Sbjct	121	GGGTTGCCACCAGGATTGGACAAATTTAAACCCCTTTCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTG-AAA				179
Query	185	aaaCTTAATAGTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				244
Sbjct	180	AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG				239
Query	245	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				304
Sbjct	240	CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC				299
Query	305	GCACATGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC				364
Sbjct	300	GCACATGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC				359
Query	365	AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAAACAATTGGCAGC				424
Sbjct	360	AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAAACAATTGGCAGC				419
Query	425	CGGCGTATTGATTTTCGGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCCTTTCGACTATAACGACGACATCC				484


```

Sbjct 420 |||||CGGCGTATTGATTTTCGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCGCTTTGCACTCATAACGACGACATCC 479
Query 485 AAAAGTACATTTTACTACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC 544
|||||
Sbjct 480 AAAAGTACATTTTACTACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC 539
Query 545 ATATCAATAAGCCGGAGGA 563
|||||
Sbjct 540 ATATCAATAAGC-GGAGGA 557

```

Phoma sp. CPO 10.003 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|378750663|gb|JQ388280.1|Length: 557Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1024 bits(554)	0.0	557/558 (99%)	1/558 (0%)		
Query 6		GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG			65
Sbjct 1		GAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACCTAGAG			60
Query 66		TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCCCTCGGT			125
Sbjct 61		TTGTAGGCTTTGCCTGTATCTCTTACCCATGTCTTTTGAGTACCTTACGTTTCCCTCGGT			120
Query 126		GGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTGaaaa			185
Sbjct 121		GGGTTGCCCCACCGATTGGACAATTTAAACCCTTTGCAGTTGAAATCAGCGTCTG-AAA			179
Query 186		aaactTAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG			245
Sbjct 180		AAACTTAATAGTTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACG			239
Query 246		CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC			305
Sbjct 240		CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAAC			299
Query 306		GCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC			365
Sbjct 300		GCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCTTC			359
Query 366		AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAAACAATTGGCAGC			425
Sbjct 360		AAGCTCTGCTTGGTGTGGGTGTTTGTCTCCTGTAGACTCGCCTTAAAACAATTGGCAGC			419
Query 426		CGGCGTATTGATTTTCGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCGCTTTGCACTCATAACGACGACATCC			485
Sbjct 420		CGGCGTATTGATTTTCGAGCGCAGTACATCTCGCGCTTTGCACTCATAACGACGACATCC			479
Query 486		AAAAGTACATTTTACTACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC			545
Sbjct 480		AAAAGTACATTTTACTACTCTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC			539
Query 546		ATATCAATAAGCCGGAGGA			563
Sbjct 540		ATATCAATAAGCCGGAGGA			557

Pleosporales sp. 3 TMS-2011 voucher SC8d10p9-6 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence; and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence

Sequence ID: gi|317383336|gb|HQ631015.1|Length: 588Number of Matches: 1

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand	Plus/Plus
1087 bits(565)	0.0	567/568 (99%)	0/568 (0%)		
Query 3		GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTC			62
Sbjct 16		GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGATCATTACATTC			75
Query 63		GTAGCCTAGCTACTTGTTTACACCCTTgtttttttGCGCACTTCATTGTATCCCTCGGC			122
Sbjct 76		GTAGCCTAGCTACTTGTTTACACCCTTGTTTTTTTTGGCGCACTTCACGTATCCCTCGGC			135
Query 123		GGGCTTGTCTCGCCGTTGGACAACATTTATAACCTTTTTTAATCTTCAATCAGCGTCTGA			182
Sbjct 136		GGGCTTGTCTCGCCGTTGGACAACATTTATAACCTTTTTTAATCTTCAATCAGCGTCTGA			195
Query 183		ATTATATTTAATAATTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGA			242
Sbjct 196		ATTATATTTAATAATTACAACCTTTCAACAACGGATCTCTTGGTCTGGCATCGATGAAGA			255
Query 243		ACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTG			302
Sbjct 256		ACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAGTGTGAATTGCAGAATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTG			315
Query 303		AACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACC			362
Sbjct 316		AACGCACATTGCGCCCTTGGTATTCCATGGGGCATGCCTGTTTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACC			375
Query 363		CTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTCTTGTCTACCTCTTTAGCGGGTAGACTCGCCTTA			422
Sbjct 376		CTCAAGCTTTGCTTGGTGTGGGCGTCTTGTCTACCTCTTTAGCGGGTAGACTCGCCTTA			435
Query 423		AAGTAATTGGCAGCCAGTGTTTTTGGCAGTAAGCGCAGCACATTTTGGCTCTTAGTCCCT			482
Sbjct 436		AAGTAATTGGCAGCCAGTGTTTTTGGCAGTAAGCGCAGCACATTTTGGCTCTTAGTCCCT			495
Query 483		AAACAGTGGCATCCACAAGCCTCTTCTCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACC			542
Sbjct 496		AAACAGTGGCATCCACAAGCCTCTTCTCACTTTTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGGATACC			555
Query 543		CGCTGAACCTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGG			570

```

|||||
Sbjct 556 CGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGG 583

Xylaria sp. P055 internal transcribed spacer 1, partial sequence; 5.8S ribosomal RNA
gene, complete sequence; and internal transcribed spacer 2, partial sequence
Sequence ID: gi|126131223|gb|EF423534.1|Length: 589Number of Matches: 1
Score Expect Identities Gaps Strand
883 bits(478) 0.0 561/599(94%) 13/599(2%) Plus/Plus
Query 15 TCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTTGGTGAACCGGAGGGATCATTACAGAGTTTATCATAACT 74
|||||
Sbjct 1 TCGTAACAAGGTCTCCGTTGGTGAAC-AGCGGAGGGA-CATTAAAGAG-TTCT-ATAACT 56
Query 75 CCCAAACCCATGTGAACATACCTTACGTTGCCTCGGCAGGACGTGCTTACCCCGTAGCGC 134
|||||
Sbjct 57 CCCAAACCCATGTGAACATACCATACGTTGCCTCGGCAGGTGCGGCCTACCCCGTAGCGT 116
Query 135 CCTACCCTGTAGGGCCTACCCGGGAAGGC-CGGGTAACCCTGCCAATGGCCCACGAAACT 193
|||||
Sbjct 117 CCTACCCTATAGGACCTACCCGG-TAGACGCGGGTAAGCCTGCCGGCGGCCCAAGAACT 175
Query 194 CTGTTTAGTATTGAATTCTGAACTTATAACTAAATAAAGTTAAAACCTTCAACAACGGAT 253
|||||
Sbjct 176 CTGTTTAGTATTGAATTCTGAACTATAACTAAAT-AAGTTAAAACCTTCAACAACGGAT 234
Query 254 CTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAG 313
|||||
Sbjct 235 CTCTTGGTTCTGGCATCGATGAAGAAC-CAGCGAAATGCGATAAGTAATGTGAATTGCAG 293
Query 314 AATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCATAGTATTCTAGTGGGCA 373
|||||
Sbjct 294 AATTCAGTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAACGCACATTGCGCCCATAGTATTCTAGTGGGCA 353
Query 374 TGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAGCCCTCGTTGCTTAGTGTGGGAGCCTACG 433
|||||
Sbjct 354 TGCCTGTTCGAGCGTCATTTCAACCCTTAAGCCCTCGTTGCTTAGTGTGGGAGCCTACG 413
Query 434 GTGCT-GTAGCTCTTCAAAGTTAGTGGCGGAGTCGGTTCACACTCTAGACGTAGTAAATT 492
|||||
Sbjct 414 GTACCCGTAGCTCCTCAAAGTTAGTGGCGGAGTCGGTTCACACTCTAGACGTAGTAA-TT 472
Query 493 TTCACCTCGCCTGT-AGTTGGACCGGTCCCTTGCCGTAAAACACCTTAATTATCTAAAGG 551
|||||
Sbjct 473 TT-ATCTCGCCTATCAGTTGGACCGGTCCCTGCCGTAAAACACCCCAATT-TCTAAAGG 530
Query 552 TTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA 610
|||||
Sbjct 531 TTGACCTCGGATCAGGTAGGAATACCCGCTGAACTTAAGCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAA 589

```

APPENDIX 3

Zone of inhibition values demonstrated by marine derived fungi against test bacteria in the plug assay

Table 1: Zone of inhibition values demonstrated by endophytic fungi from *Vitex rotundifolia* against test bacteria in plug assay

Endophytic fungi	Test bacteria (zone of inhibition in mm)						
	SA	BC	BS	ML	EF	EC	PA
<i>Cochliobolus eragrostidis</i>	-	14.00±0.00	14.83±0.29	-	-	-	-
<i>Cochliobolus eragrostidis</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Curvularia</i> sp.	16.17±0.29	14.83±0.29	13.00±0.00	-	-	-	-
<i>Curvularia</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fungal sp. ARIZ B233	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Guignardia mangiferae</i>	-	12.33±0.58	14.00±0.00	-	-	-	-
<i>Letendraea helminthicola</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Nemania primolutea</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Nemania primolutea</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Paecilomyces</i> sp.	16.00±0.00	16.17±0.29	15.00±0.00	-	-	-	-
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	-	8.00±0.00	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; “-“ = no activity against all test bacteria

SA: *Staphylococcus aureus*; BC: *Bacillus cereus*; BS: *Bacillus subtilis*; EF: *Enterococcus faecalis*; ML: *Micrococcus luteus*; EC: *Escherichia coli*; PA: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

Table 2: Zone of inhibition values demonstrated by endophytic fungi from *Ipomoea pes-caprae* against test bacteria in plug assay

Endophytic fungi	Test bacteria (zone of inhibition in mm)						
	SA	BC	BS	ML	EF	EC	PA
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	-	-	10.17±0.29	25.00±0.00	-	-	-
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	21.00±0.00	14.83±0.29	10.00±0.00	18.67±0.29	15.67±0.58	8.00±0.00	-
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Bipolaris</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Cochliobolus lunatus</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Colletotrichum hippeastri</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Colletotrichum</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Dothideomycete</i> sp.	10.17±0.29	11.17±0.29	-	10.00±0.00	-	-	8.00±0.00
<i>Dothideomycete</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fungal endophyte sp g88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Fusarium equiseti</i>	27.33±0.58	24.00±0.00	22.00±0.00	26.00±0.00	-	-	-
<i>Guignardia mangiferae</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Minimidochium</i> sp.	8.33±0.47	8.33±0.24	13.33±0.58	10.83±0.29	-	8.67±0.24	-
<i>Montagnulaceae</i> sp.	24.67±0.29	27.33±0.58	19.83±0.29	24.00±0.00	-	-	-
<i>Myrothecium</i> sp.	8.33±0.47	8.33±0.47	8.33 ±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	8.00±0.00	8.00±0.00	-	-	-	8.67±0.24	-
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	-	-	-	8.00±0.00	-	-	-
<i>Phoma</i> sp.	10.83±0.29	-	-	10.17±0.29	-	-	-
<i>Pleosporales</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; “-“ = no activity against all test bacteria

SA: *Staphylococcus aureus*; BC: *Bacillus cereus*; BS: *Bacillus subtilis*; EF: *Enterococcus faecalis*; ML: *Micrococcus luteus*; EC: *Escherichia coli*; PA: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

Table 3: Zone of inhibition values demonstrated by manglicolous fungi against test bacteria in plug assay

Manglicolous fungi	Test bacteria (zone of inhibition in mm)						
	SA	BC	BS	ML	EF	EC	PA
<i>Corollospora maritima</i>	-	10.33±0.236	10.167±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i> (ISB001)	10.83±0.24	-	10.33±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i> (ISB002)	11.00±0.41	-	10.83±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i> (ISB003)	13.00±0.41	13.83±0.236	14.33±0.24	10.83±0.24	-	-	-
<i>Dactylospora haliotrepha</i> (ISB004)	13.00±0.41	14.33±0.236	13.83±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Fusarium</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Henningsomyces</i> sp.	14.67±0.24	14.33±0.236	13.67±0.24	10.33±0.24	-	-	-
MF 28	14.83±0.24	15.00±0.408	14.67±0.24	-	-	8.00±0.00	-
<i>Saccardoella rhizophorae</i>	15.83±0.24	16.17±0.236	15.00±0.41	14.67±0.24	-	8.00±0.00	-
<i>Verruculina enalia</i> (ISB005)	11.00±0.41	13.83±0.236	12.17±0.24	-	-	-	-
<i>Verruculina enalia</i> (ISB006)	10.83±0.24	12.17±0.236	11.00±0.41	-	-	-	-

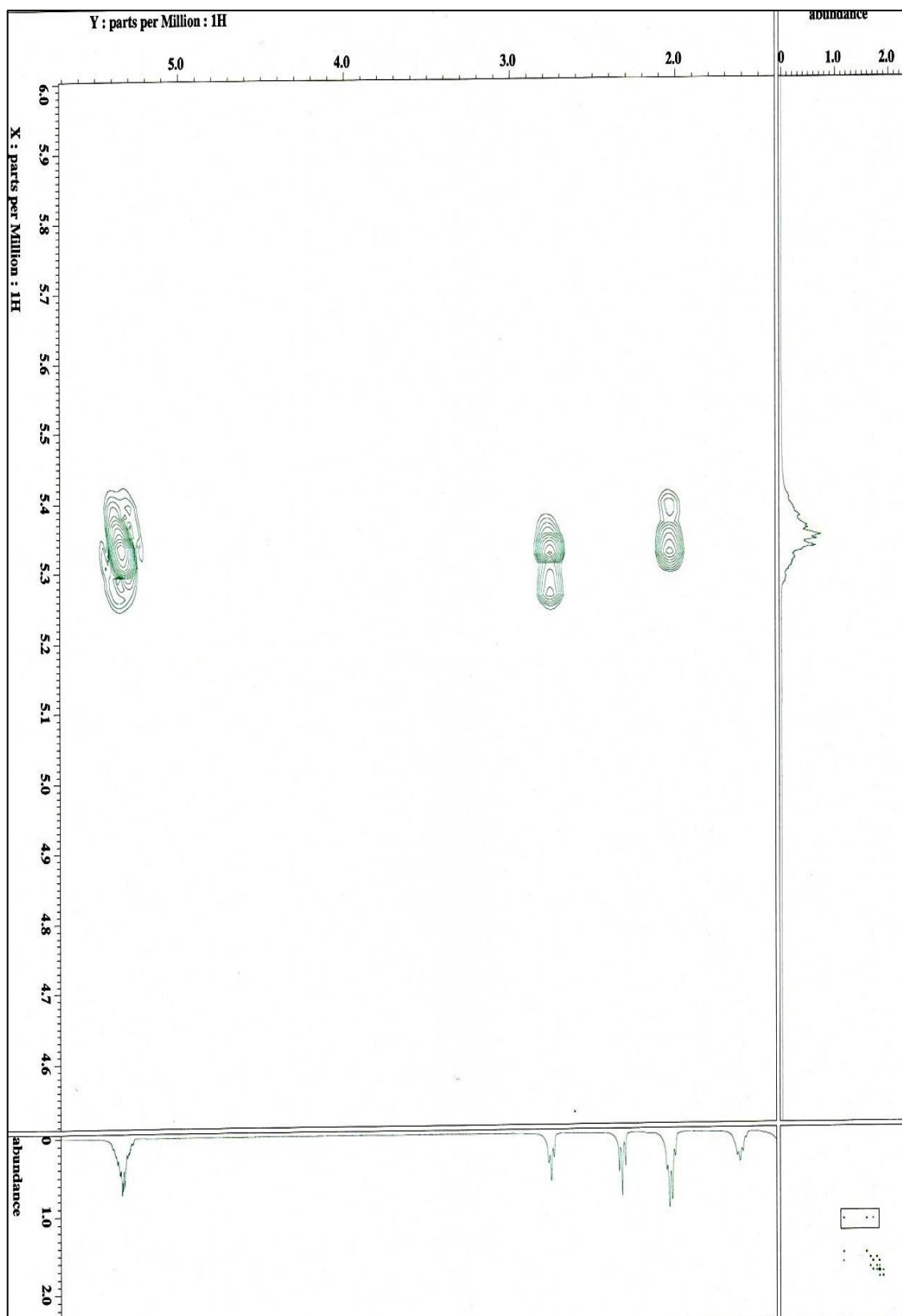
Mean ± standard deviation, n=3; “-“ = no activity

SA: *Staphylococcus aureus*; BC: *Bacillus cereus*; BS: *Bacillus subtilis*; EF: *Enterococcus faecalis*; ML: *Micrococcus luteus*; EC: *Escherichia coli*; PA: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

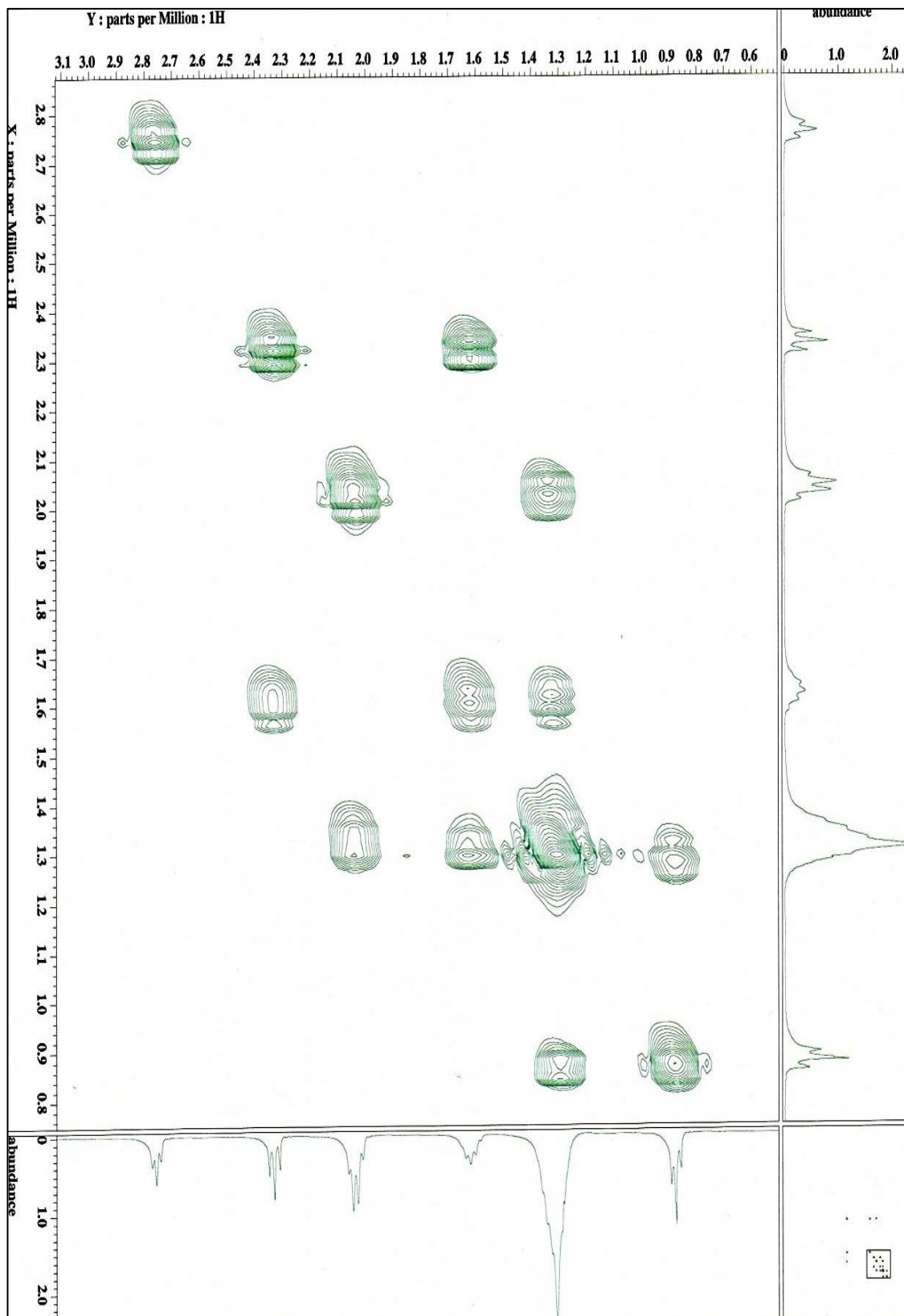
APPENDIX 4

2-Dimensional NMR spectrum of linoleic acid in CDCl_3

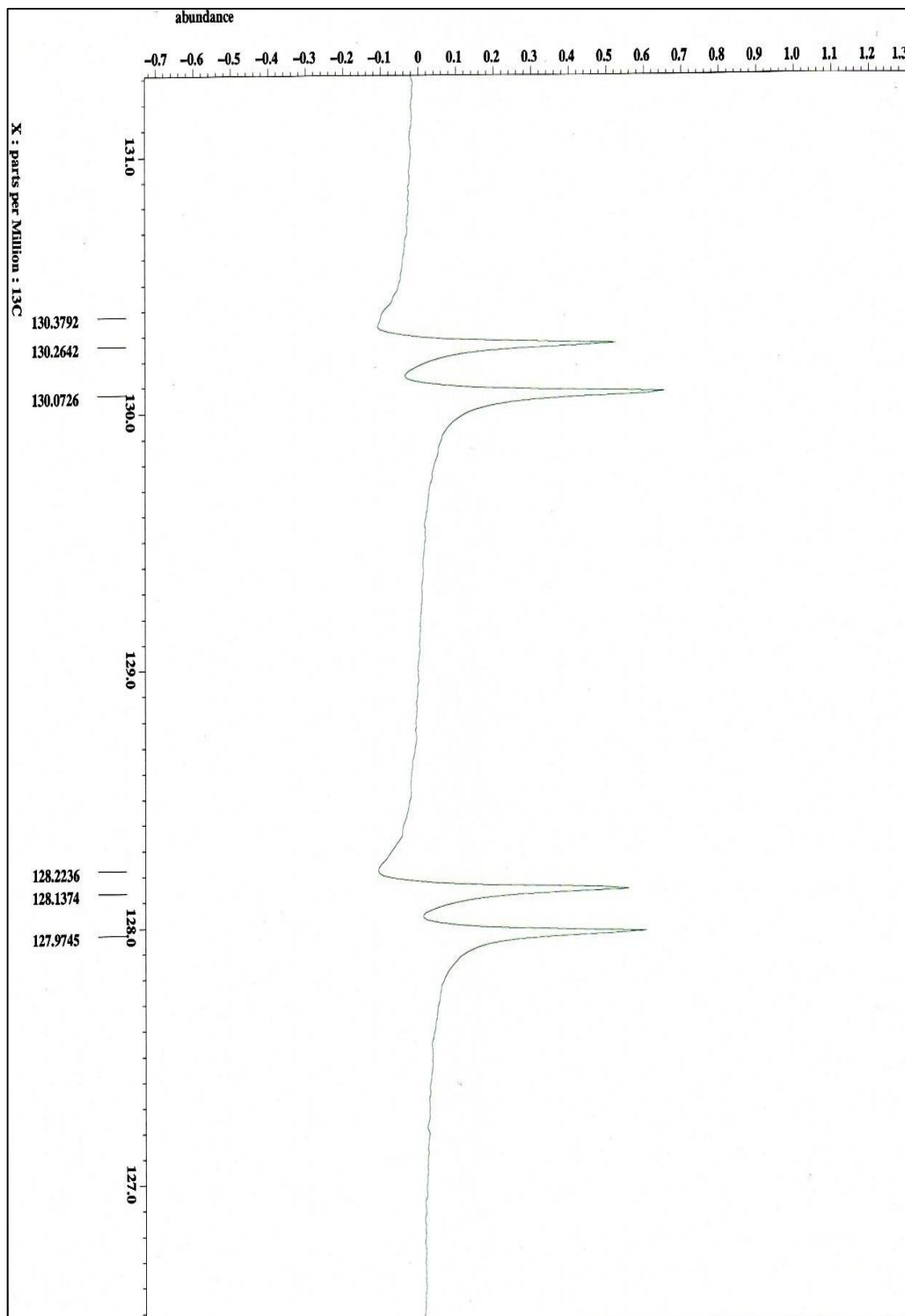
Correlation spectroscopy (COSY) spectrum



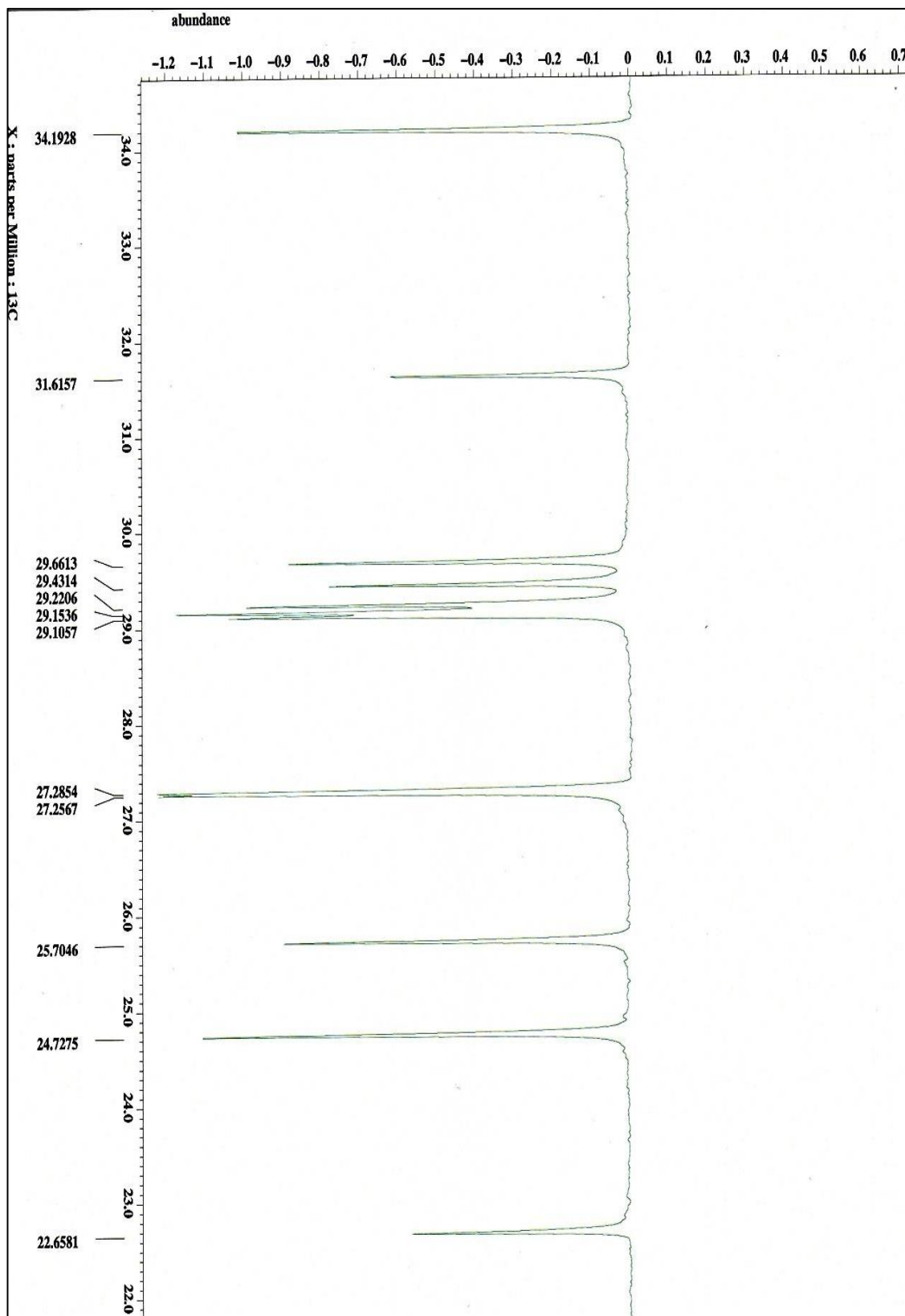
COSY spectrum (continued)



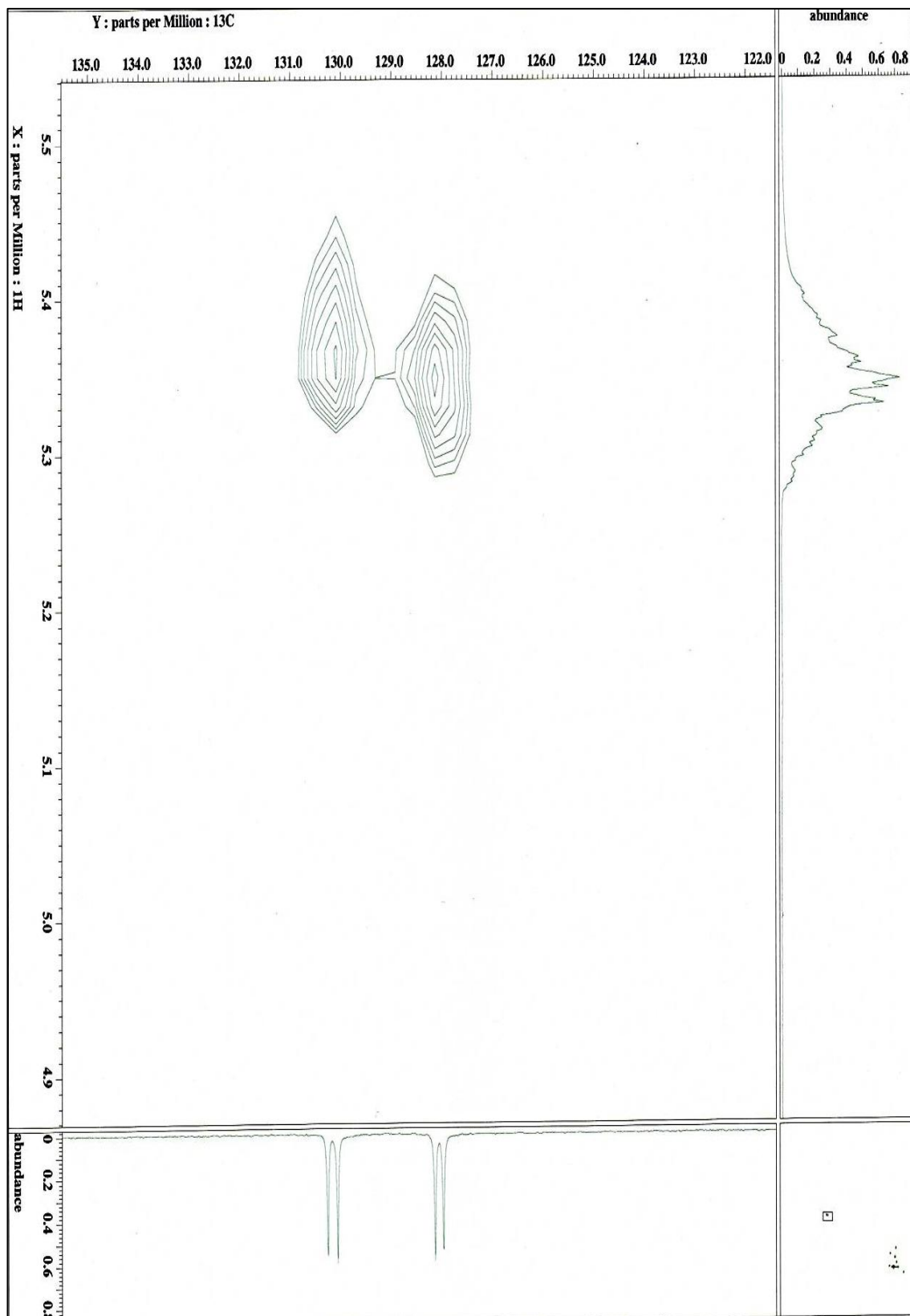
Distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer (DEPT) spectrum



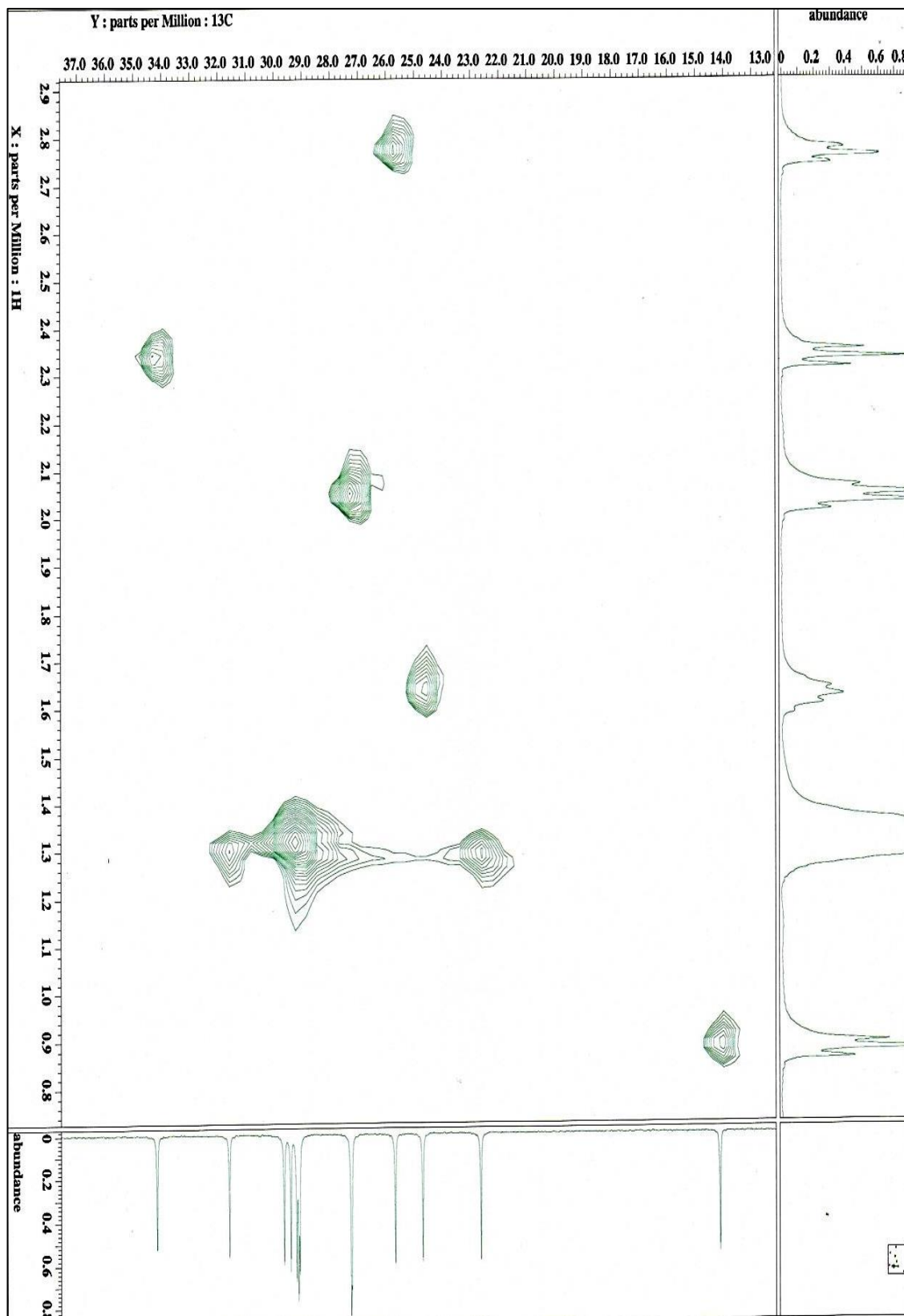
DEPT spectrum (continued)



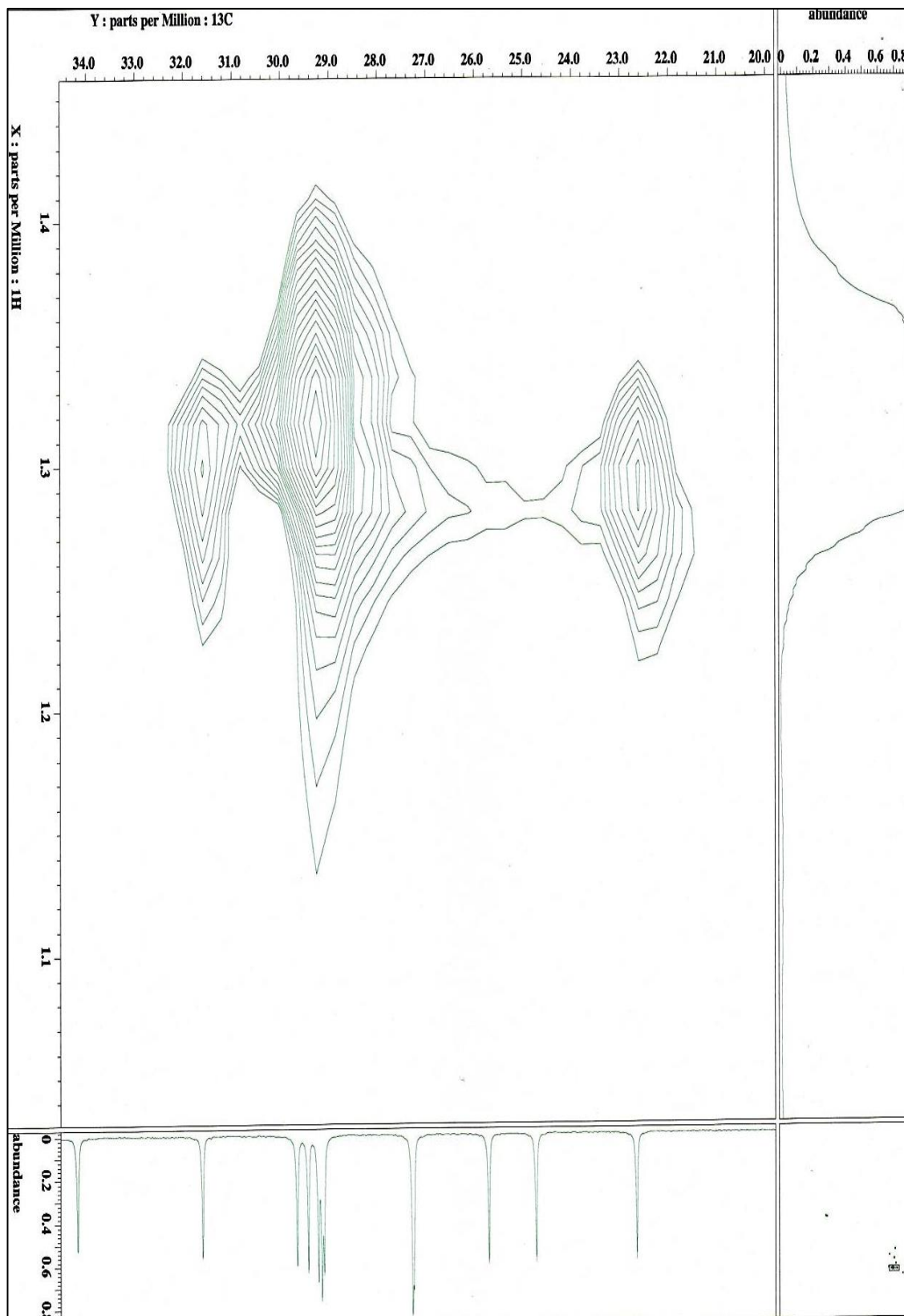
Heteronuclear single-quantum correlation spectroscopy (HSQC) spectrum



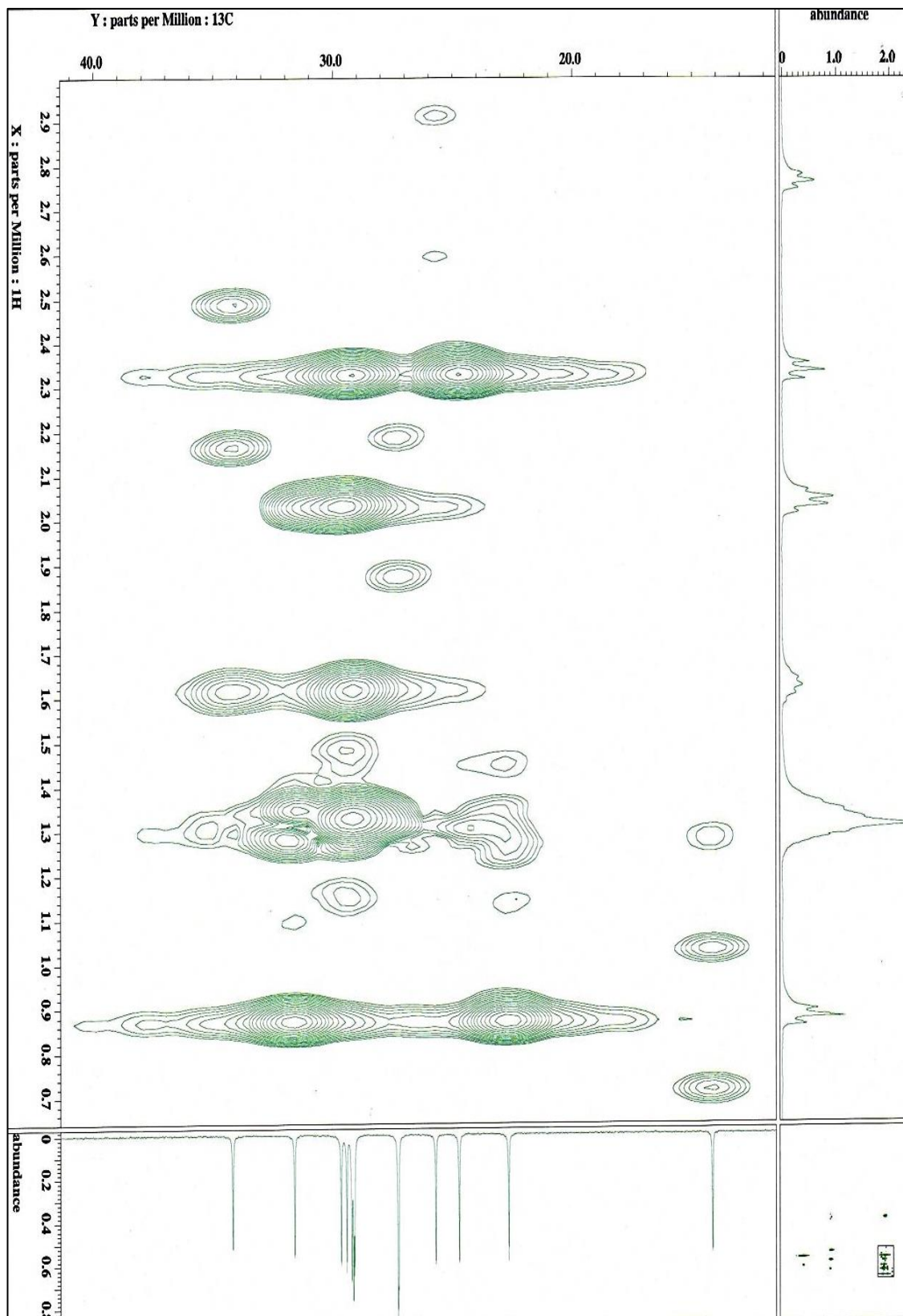
HSQC spectrum (continued)



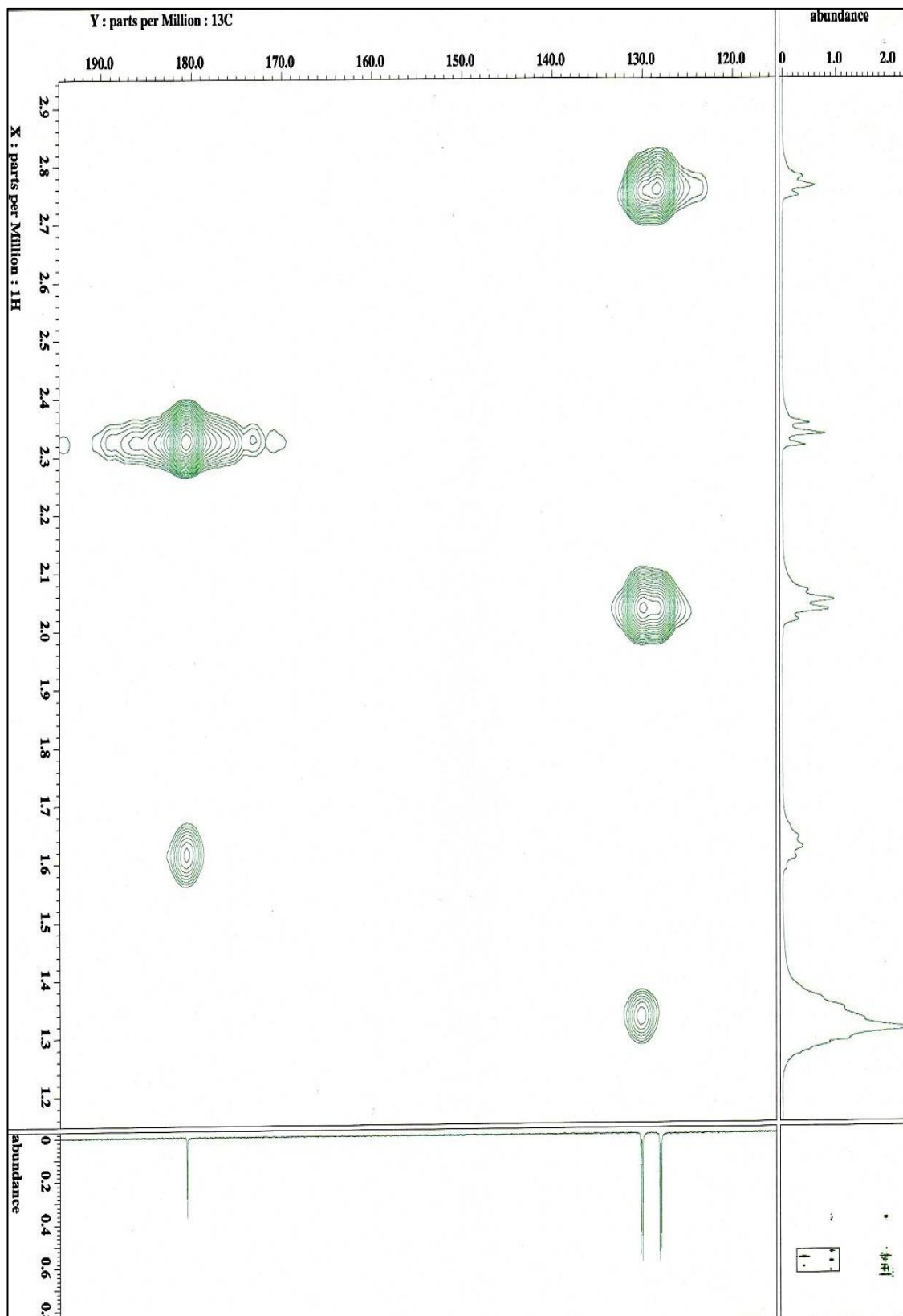
HSQC spectrum (continued)



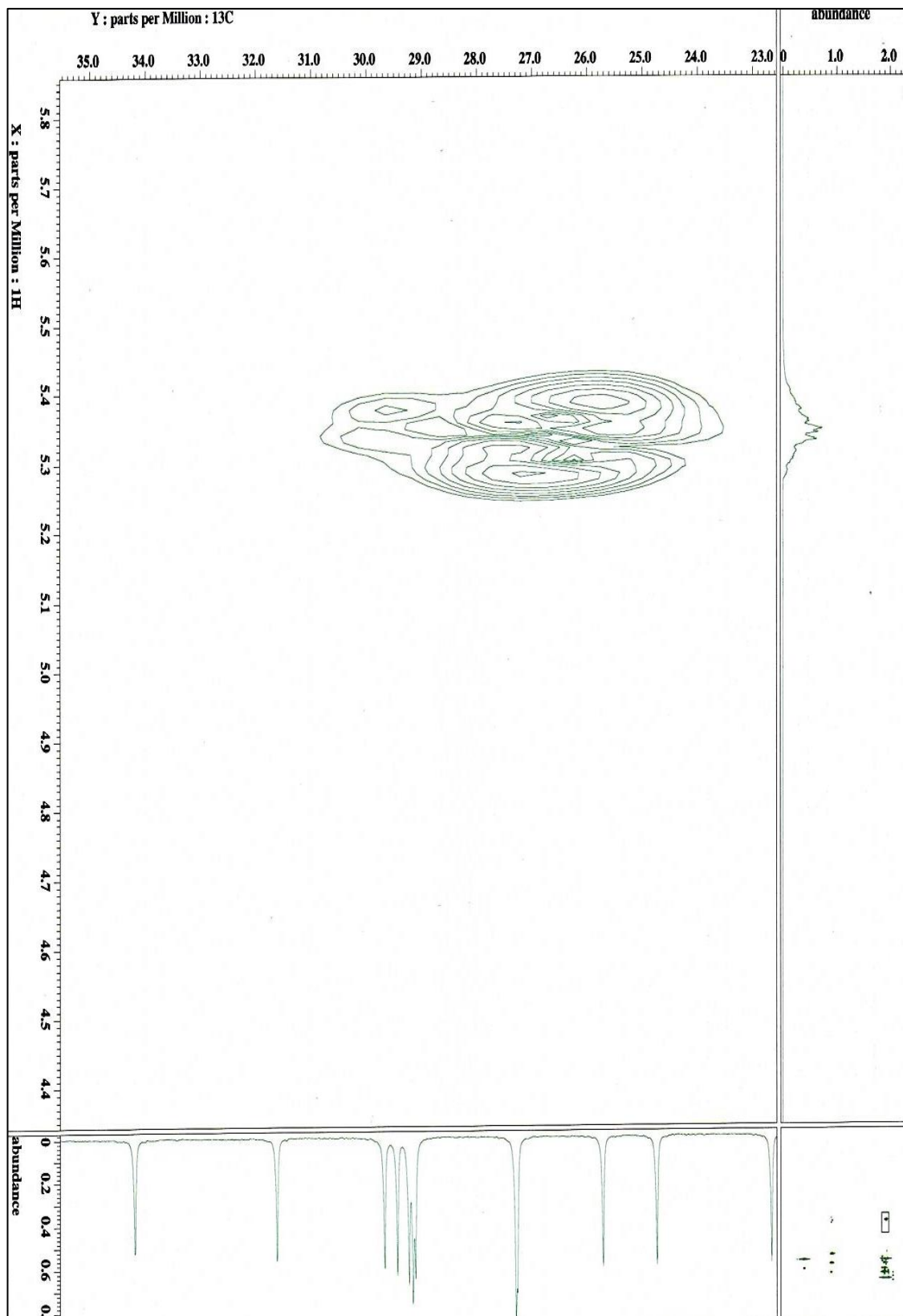
Heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation spectroscopy (HMBC) spectrum



HMBC spectrum (continued)



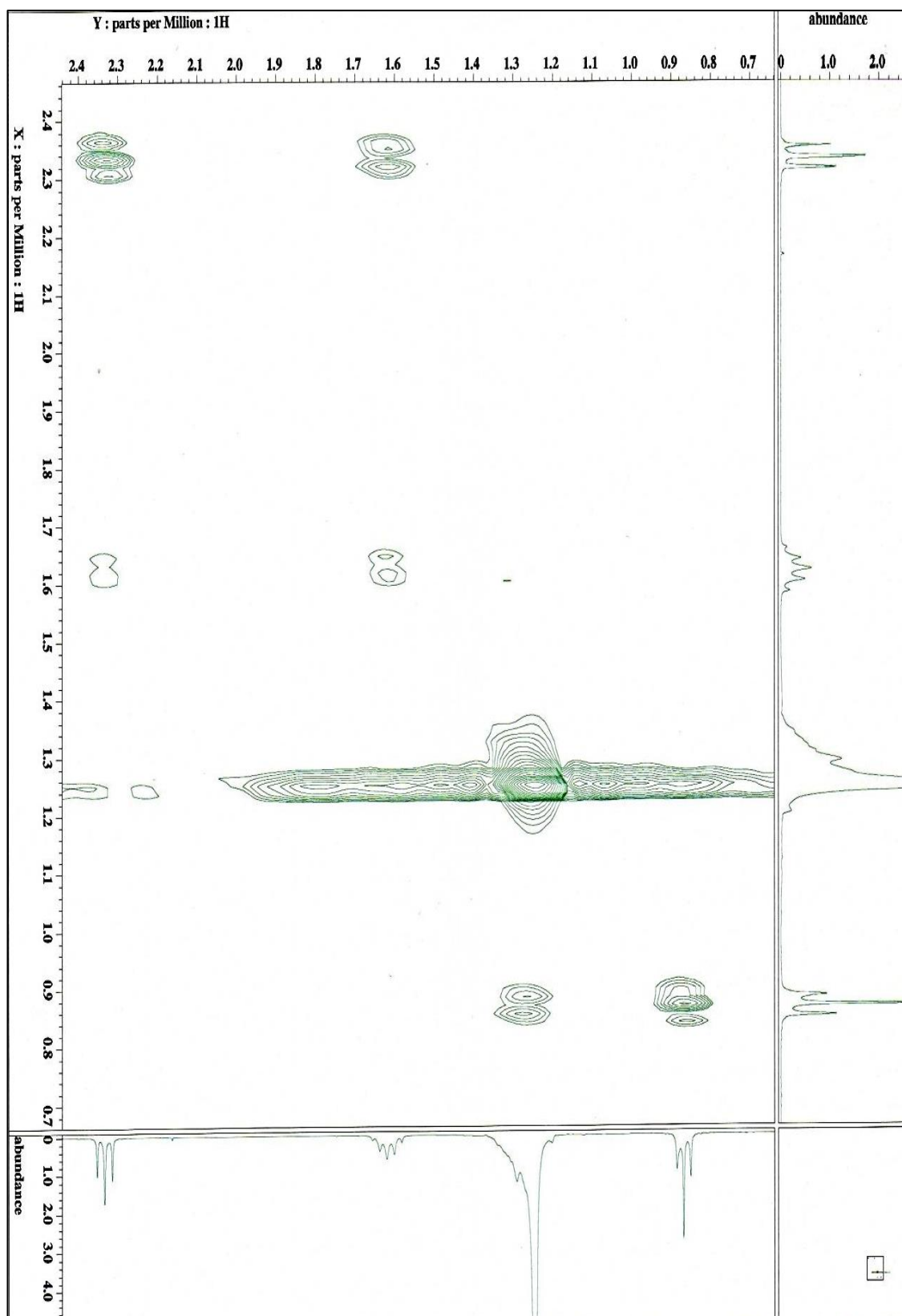
HMBC spectrum (continued)



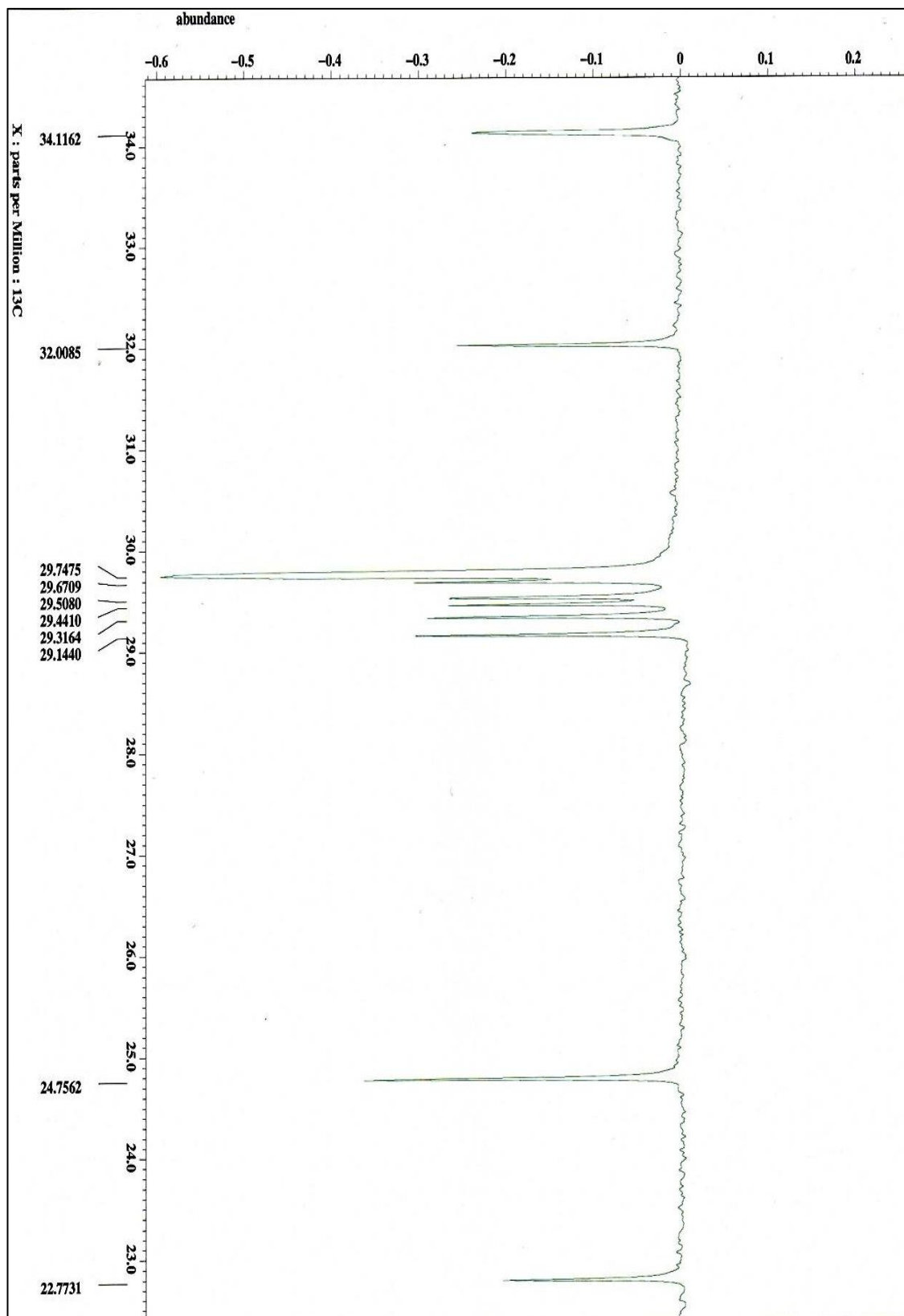
APPENDIX 5

2-Dimensional NMR spectrum of palmitic acid in CDCl_3

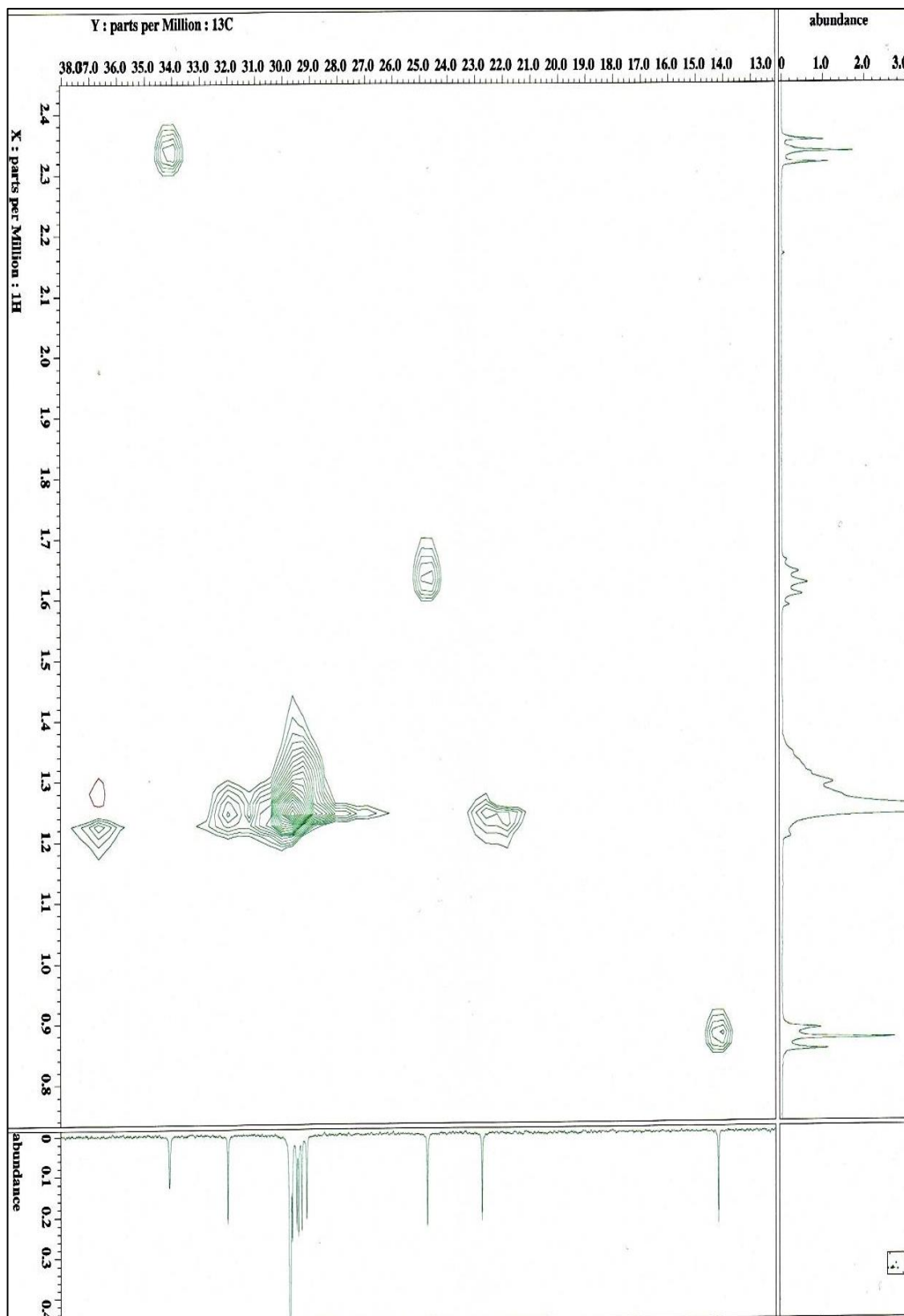
COSY spectrum



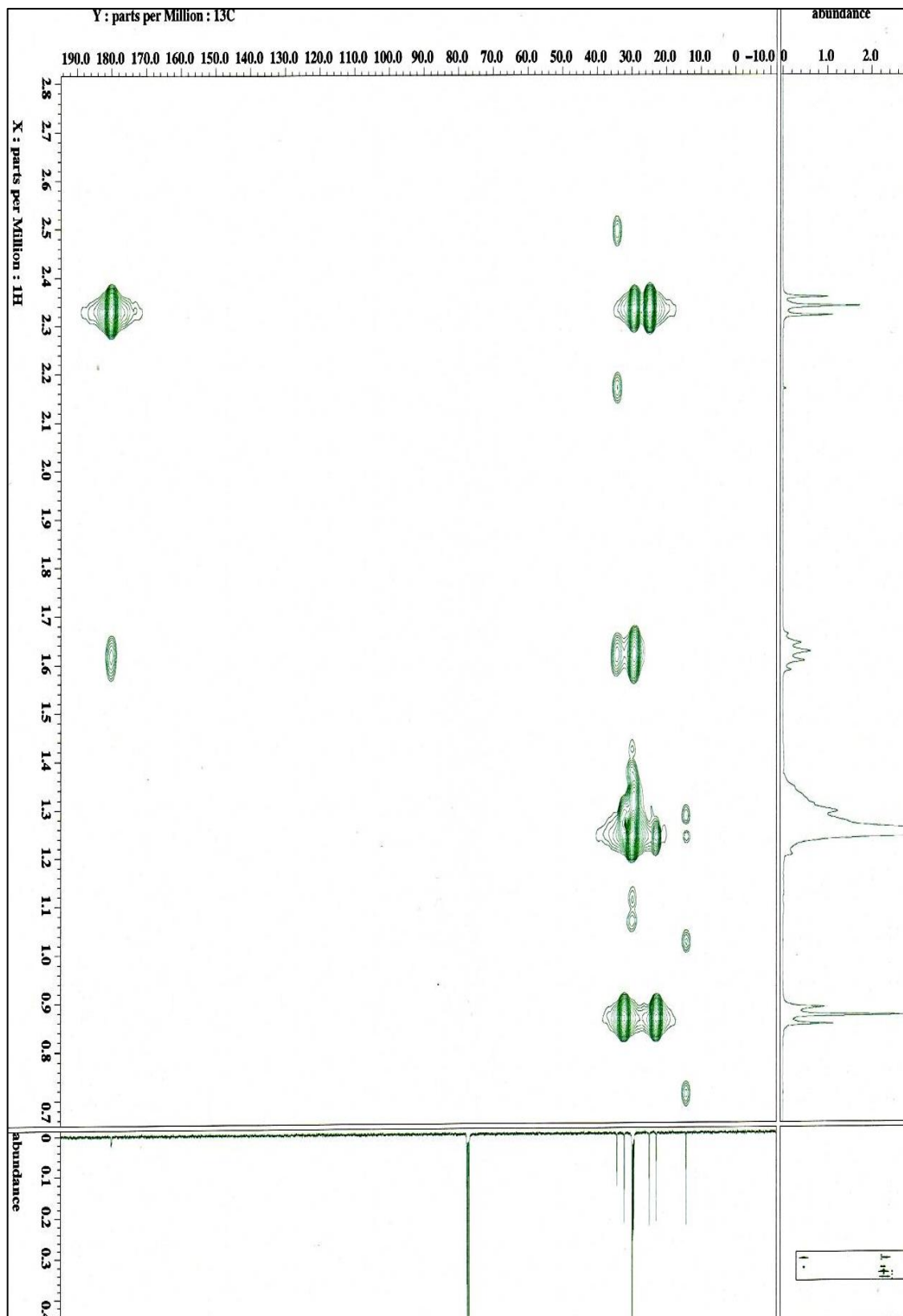
DEPT spectrum



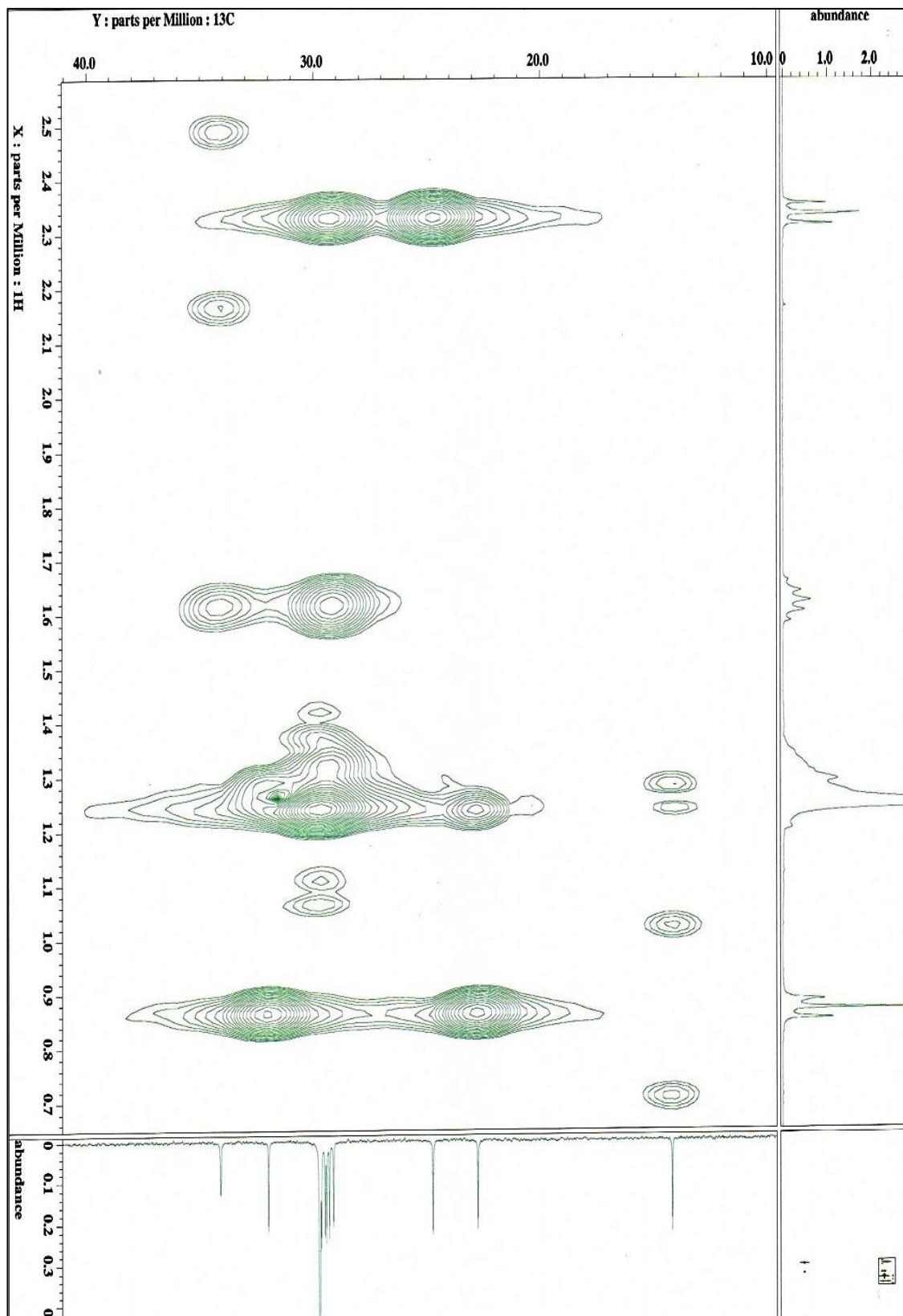
HSQC spectrum



HMBC spectrum



HMBC spectrum (continued)



APPENDIX 6

List of presentation abstracts

Paliany, A.S., Alias, S.A., Awang, K. (2012). Assessing the antibacterial bioactivity of saprophytic and endophytic marine fungi from the east and west coastline, Peninsular Malaysia. Abstract in book, 17th Biological Sciences Graduate Congress. Chulalongkorn University, Thailand.

BSGC 2012- Theme 2: Applied Science and Biotechnology
Presentation type: Poster presentation

Assessing the antibacterial bioactivity of saprophytic and endophytic marine fungi from the east and west coastline, Peninsular Malaysia

Audra Shaleena Paliany¹, Siti Aisyah Alias^{1,2*}, Khalijah Awang³

¹*Institute of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

²*Institute of Ocean and Earth Sciences, Institute of Graduate Studies, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

³*Chemistry Department, Faculty of Science, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

*Email: saa@um.edu.my

Majority of drugs today are derived from plants and microorganism. The harsh environment of the marine ecosystem offers promising potential for new bioactive compounds. A total of 11 saprophytic and 46 endophytic fungi were evaluated for their antibacterial activity. The saprophytic fungi were isolated from various manglicolous materials in Malaysia while the endophytic fungi were isolated from two marine associated plants, *Ipomoea pes-caprae* and *Vitex rotundifolia*. These two plants were found along the shoreline from west and east coastal regions in Malaysia. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of all saprophytes and preliminary screening of all 46 endophytes collected were evaluated against 7 bacterial strains consisting of 2 Gram negative and 5 Gram positive bacteria. Results for MIC displayed potent antibacterial activity of 4 saprophytic fungi strains; *Dactylospora haliotrepha* (tioman), *Sacardoella rhizophorae*, *Henningsomyces* sp. and an unidentified species, MF 28 against 4 Gram positive bacteria namely *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Micrococcus luteus* and *Bacillus subtilis*. The endophytic fungi were screened using the plug assay method and the bacterial susceptibility index was evaluated for all 7 bacteria. Results obtained showed that *Bacillus cereus* had the highest susceptibility index at 0.3696% followed by *Staphylococcus aureus* at 0.3043%, *Bacillus subtilis* at 0.2609% and *Micrococcus luteus* at 0.2391%. The lowest bacterial susceptibility index was recorded by *Escherichia coli* at 0.0217%. Further work will be focussing on the species identification of all isolated endophytes through molecular sequencing of their ITS sequences and the chemical characterization and elucidation of pure compounds from the active fungi strains.

Paliany, A.S., Sivasothy, Y., Alias, S.A., Awang, K. (2013). The antibacterial activity of marine derived fungi from Peninsular Malaysia. Abstract in book, International Marine and Freshwater Mycology Symposium. China National Convention Center, China.

IMFMS 2013- Session 1: Bioactive Compounds of Marine Origin
Presentation type: Oral presentation

The antibacterial activity of marine derived fungi from Peninsular Malaysia

Audra Shaleena Paliany¹, Yasodha Sivasothy², Khalijah Awang², Siti Aisah Alias^{1, 3*}

¹ *Institute of Biological Sciences, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

² *Department of Chemistry, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

³ *Institute of Ocean and Earth Sciences, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

*Email: saa@um.edu.my

Over the past 2 decades, scientist have come to acknowledge the growing importance of marine and marine-related resources such as plants, sponges, algae and microbes, for new drugs, pesticides and anti-fouling substances. Marine fungi have been recognized as a rich of novel bioactive metabolites with potential biomedical use. In our study, we explored the antibacterial activity of marine derived endophytic and saprophytic fungi. The endophytic fungi in this study was isolated from 2 marine associated plants; *Vitex rotundifolia* L. f. and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* (L.) R.Br., from the coastlines of Peninsular Malaysia. The saprophytic fungi in this study were from the mangrove habitat. A total of 12 and 21 endophytic fungi were isolated from *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* respectively while 10 saprophytic fungi were isolated from the mangrove environment. The plug assay and broth microdilution assay were adopted as antibacterial screening methods of the fungi strains. Results showed that the endophytes from *Ipomoea pes-caprae* exhibited a broader spectrum of antibacterial activity covering both Gram positive and negative bacteria in comparison to the endophytes from *Vitex rotundifolia*. The saprophytic fungi, *Saccardoella* sp. showed a broad spectrum antibacterial activity against both Gram positive and negative bacteria. The chemical analyses of the secondary metabolites from *Saccardoella* sp. revealed 2 chemical compounds with antibacterial activity. The search for novel metabolites of fungal origin in Malaysia is still at its preliminary stages with very few reports published. Thus this study may prove crucial to pave the way for further discovery of novel fungal metabolites with pharmacological values.

Paliany, A.S., Sivasothy, Y., Awang, K., Idid, M.R., Alias, S.A. (2014). Antibacterial Potential of Marine Derived Fungi from Peninsular Malaysia and Metabolites of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*. Abstract in book, International Conference on Fungal Biodiversity and Biotechnology. Mae Fah Luang University, Thailand.

Presentation type: Poster presentation

Antibacterial Potential of Marine Derived Fungi from Peninsular Malaysia and Metabolites of *Saccardoella rhizophorae*

Audra Shaleena Paliany¹, Yasodha Sivasothy², Khalijah Awang², Mohammed Rizman Idid³ Siti Aisyah Alias^{1,3*}

¹Institute of Biological Sciences, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

²Department of Chemistry, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

³Institute of Ocean and Earth Sciences, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

*Email: saa@um.edu.my

Abstract:

The past 2 decades has seen the discovery of numerous new and novel fungal metabolites of promising pharmacological significance. Marine fungi in particular, have now been recognized as good harbors of important novel bioactive metabolites with potential biomedical applications. In an effort to tap into natural products harboured by marine derived fungi in Malaysia, selected marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi from the coastlines of Peninsular Malaysia were investigated for their antibacterial potential. A total of 12 and 21 endophytic fungi were isolated from the marine associated plants, *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* respectively while 10 manglicolous fungi were isolated from various decaying mangrove wood of Peninsular Malaysia. In preliminary experiments, the plug assay was employed to study the antibacterial activities of all 33 fungi isolates. Fifteen or 45.45% of the endophytic fungi isolates and 9 or 90% of the manglicolous fungi isolated displayed antibacterial activities against at least one of the test bacteria. The endophytic fungi from *I. pes-caprae* displayed higher antibacterial potential in comparison to the endophytic fungi from *V. rotundifolia* especially the strains, *Minimidochium* sp. and *Bipolaris* sp. which displayed antibacterial activities against 5 or more test bacteria. The fungi isolates that exhibited good antibacterial activities in the plug assay was further analysed through the broth microdilution assay where the fungi strains *Minimidochium* sp and *Saccardoella rhizophorae* exhibited promising antibacterial activities with minimum inhibitory concentrations not higher than 0.5mg/ml. Bioactivity-guided fractionation of *S. rhizophorae* extract resulted in the isolation of high concentrations of palmitic and linoleic acid thereby suggesting *Saccardoella rhizophorae* to be a promising biodiesel source. The search for novel metabolites of fungal origin in Malaysia is still at its preliminary stages with very few reports published thereby this study may prove crucial to pave the way for further discovery of fungal metabolites with commercial values.

APPENDIX 7

List of abstracts for journal publication

(Accepted)

Marine Derived Fungi of Peninsular Malaysia-a Biochemical Perspective

Audra Shaleena Paliany^a, Yasodha Sivasothy^b, Khalijah Awang^b, Mohammed Rizman-Idid^{a,c} and Siti Aisyah Alias^{*a,c}

^aInstitute of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, Malaysia,

^bDepartment of Chemistry, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, Malaysia

^cInstitute of Ocean and Earth Sciences, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, Malaysia

Abstract

In an effort to tap into natural products harboured by marine derived fungi in Malaysia, selected marine derived endophytic and manglicolous fungi from the coastlines of Peninsular Malaysia were investigated for their antibacterial potential. Forty-one strains were isolated from marine associated plants, comprised and comprised 11 and 18 endophytic strains from *Vitex rotundifolia* and *Ipomoea pes-caprae* respectively, while 10 manglicolous strains were from decaying mangrove wood collected in Peninsular Malaysia. In preliminary experiments, a plug assay was employed to study the antibacterial activities of all 39 fungi isolates. Fifteen of the endophytic isolates and nine of the manglicolous isolates displayed antibacterial activities against at least one of the test bacteria. Based on the plug assay, the endophytic fungi from *Ipomoea pes-caprae* were shown to display higher antibacterial potential in comparison to the endophytic fungi from *Vitex rotundifolia*. In particular, *Minimidochium* sp. and *Bipolaris* sp. (ISB0014) displayed antibacterial activities against 5 or more test bacteria. Potential fungi isolates with good antibacterial activities were further analysed through a broth microdilution assay. *Minimidochium* sp. and *Dyfrolomyces rhizophorae* exhibited promising antibacterial activities with minimum inhibitory concentrations not higher than 0.5 mg/ml. Bioactivity-guided fractionation of *D. rhizophorae* extracts resulted in the isolation of fatty acids, palmitic and linoleic acid. Though ubiquitous in nature, linoleic acid is known as an essential health supplement and both fatty acids are used as biodiesel replacing conventional fuels.

Keywords: Natural products, Antibiotics, Manglicolous fungi, Endophytic fungi, Bioactivity.

(Published)

Pahangensin A and B, two new antibacterial diterpenes from the rhizomes of *Alpinia pahangensis* Ridley

Yasodha Sivasothy^a, Halijah Ibrahim^b, Audra Shaleena Paliany^b, Siti Aisyah Alias^b, Khalijah Awang^{a*}

^a *Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, University Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

^b *Institute of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, University Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

Abstract

The rhizomes of *Alpinia pahangensis* Ridley yielded a new bis-labdanic diterpene for which the name pahangensin A (**1**) was proposed along with a new labdane diterpene, pahangensin B (**2**). Their structures were elucidated by spectroscopic methods including, 1D and 2D NMR techniques and LCMS-IT-TOF analysis. Pahangensin A (**1**) was found to be an antibacterial agent against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus cereus* and *Bacillus subtilis* with MIC values less than 100 µg/mL, respectively. Pahangensin B (**2**) exhibited antibacterial activity (MIC < 100 µg/mL) against *Bacillus cereus*.

Keywords: *Alpinia pahangensis* Ridley, Zingiberaceae, bis-labdanic diterpene, labdane diterpene, pahangensin A, pahangensin B, antibacterial agent

(Published)

A new bis-labdanic diterpene from the rhizomes of *Alpinia pahangensis*

Yasodha Sivasothy¹, Halijah Ibrahim², Audra Shaleena Paliany², Siti Aisyah Alias², Nurur Raudzah Md. Nor³, Khalijah Awang^{1*}

¹ *Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, University Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.*

² *Institute of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, University Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.*

³ *Chemistry Department, Center of Foundation Studies, International Islamic University Malaysia, Petaling Jaya, 46350, Selangor, Malaysia.*

Abstract

The rhizomes of *Alpinia pahangensis* Ridley yielded a new bis-labdanic diterpene for which the name pahangensin C (**1**) was proposed along with twelve known analogues (**2-13**). The structure of **1** was elucidated via spectroscopic methods including, 1D and 2D NMR techniques and LCMS-IT-TOF analysis. Compounds **2** and **12** were isolated for the first time from the genus *Alpinia*. This is the second occurrence of compounds **2** and **12** in the Zingiberaceae. Selected analogues exhibited moderate to strong inhibitory activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Bacillus cereus*.

Keywords: *Alpinia pahangensis* Ridley, Zingiberaceae, bis-labdanic diterpene, labdane diterpene, pahangensin C